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The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 6, 1912.

The Week

Mr. Taft has wisely urged the National Committee to conduct public hearings in the matter of contested delegates. It is all very well to cite the precedent of the Roosevelt steam-roller tactics of four years ago. But we all know that if Mr. Roosevelt chose to settle matters in secret session at that time, he must have had a very good reason for it, to question which is to expose one's self to everlasting infamy. And in the second place the Colonel, when he tries to "put something over," has a gift for "getting away with it" that Mr. Taft can never hope to rival. It is plain that Mr. Roosevelt's followers would have made an enormous amount of capital out of any unfavorable action taken by the Committee in secret session. The cry of fraud would have been raised on the floor of the Convention. As it is, Mr. Taft has little to lose in an open trial of his case before the Committee, provided his interests are ably defended there. Publicity in this business of the Southern delegates may cut both ways. It will be shown that Federal patronage has been instrumental in winning delegates for Taft. But Mr. Roosevelt's representatives should also be made to show the means by which they have been winning delegates for the Colonel.

It would be unfair to say that Col. Roosevelt has changed his mind about fighting Senator Root's selection as temporary chairman of the National Convention. He has had no mind of his own on that subject. His mind is in the hands of his delegates. This he explicitly admitted on Sunday. He then stated that such delegates as he had "seen" were of the opinion that the temporary chairmanship was "unimportant," and that "no issue should be made" in respect to that matter. But he added that he wanted to "hear from the delegates throughout the country before committing myself finally." Now he has heard and, his mind having been made up for him by the majority, he has discovered that the duty of opposing Mr. Root is a stern daughter of the voice of God, resting as it does upon the highest principle about which no honest man can hesitate or vacillate. Hence the orders go forth to fight Root from the drop of the handkerchief.

Not even the fact that it is said to have originated in the Department of Justice, can convince us that the Humphreys bill, which was unanimously passed by the House on Monday, is a wise measure. The case of the Government against the steamship lines for violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust law is about to come up in court. The Humphreys bill bears directly upon this suit in that it empowers the court, if it finds the steamship lines guilty, to "prohibit all vessels employed pursuant to such contract, combination, or conspiracy, or in such monopolization or attempt to monopolize, from entering at or clearing from any port of the United States," this prohibition to last, under penalty of $25,000 fine for each ship, until the "conspiracy, combination, or contract" is ended. Under this law it is quite possible that steamers bearing thousands of returning Americans might be turned back as they neared New York, and sent to Halifax or Montreal to unload.

In searching history for an analogic missile to fling at the opposing candidate, Mr. Taft need not have gone back so far as Louis XIV. Andrew Jackson ran his campaign of 1832 largely on the assurance of his personal popularity with the hurrah-boys element; but in those days, instead of the candidates going upon the stump and appealing directly to the people for their votes, both parties made liberal use of token coins covered with satirical devices. Most of those directed against Jackson naturally contained quotations from his self-assertive utterances, and their commonest subject was his warfare upon the United States bank. One which proved particularly telling bore on its face the figure of a hog at full gallop, with the inscription, "Perish Credit, Perish Commerce, 1830. MY Victory. MY third Heat. Down with the Bank!" On the reverse side was a bust of Jackson with the legend, "MY Substitute for the United States Bank. MY Experiment, MY Currency, MY Glory." There is no record of a smashed bank in the Colonel's case, but in some other respects a Jacksonian analogy would be not without fitness.

The passage of the eight-hour law for all Government work, and for the Panama Canal after it is completed, evidences a remarkable change in the sentiment of Congress. Only one Democrat voted against it in the Senate, and but ten Republicans. A number of Democratic Senators voiced their misgivings—but the bill slipped through with comparatively slight discussion; and thus a vitally important legislative step is taken, with the public hardly aware that it was under consideration. Just as almost no newspaper attention was paid to the passing and signing of the pension bill which Mr. Taft, knowing better, approved, so this eight-hour bill is likely to be overlooked in the excitement of the Presidential campaign. Yet its results will be far-reaching, indeed, affecting every taxpayer in the land. Every contract for public work hereafter will be more costly because of this provision, and from considerable work, like building ships for the navy, the contractors will be frightened off in numbers. It is all a part of the effort to regulate economic conditions by statute. We have got into the habit of thinking that by raising or lowering the tariff we can increase and decrease the prosperity of millions of workingmen. Now it is thought that by putting the Government at a disadvantage with most private corporations, the latter will be induced to follow suit and make their day one of eight hours only. However desirable the short day, this is a very questionable way to obtain it—by making extra burdens for those classes in the community who do not work on Government contracts.

The Ohio Constitutional Convention fittingly crowned its labors by naming a special day for the verdict of the voters upon the forty-two proposals to be submitted to them. To have coupled voting upon a new Constitution with voting for President and other officers would have been for the members of the Convention to show

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slight courtesy to their own work. One detail of the voting arrangements will strike some citizens of other States as a little peculiar: the liquor license provision is to have a conspicuously separate place on the ballot, an honor accorded to no other in the entire list. Yet these others include such fundamental changes as woman suffrage, the initiative and referendum, direct primaries, and reform of judicial procedure. The explanation is to be found in the part that regulation of the liquor traffic has played in Ohio. It has made and unmade Legislatures, and been the test of political faith.

To combat the dissemination of fictitious news in matters affecting international relations is among the first tasks set itself by the European bureau of the Carnegie Peace Foundation. It is a task of great difficulty, but the results that may be obtained are easily worth the effort. No one will deny that the conscienceless and the ignorant newspaper press is responsible in large measure for the regularly recurrent crises which agitate European politics. Whether the cause be simply ignorance or unconscious prejudice or deliberate misrepresentation, a central bureau that shall make it its business to call the attention of editors to fictions that pass in their columns as facts must count in the long run for a higher standard of international ethics. There is the maxim, of course, that a lie once cast abroad cannot be overtaken. But if an active hue and cry be set up after every lie as it turns up, the public may ultimately be taught to receive tainted matter with suspicion.

In some quarters there is a simulated or genuine concern over the clause in the army appropriation bill which will terminate Gen. Wood's career as Chief of Staff on March 4, 1913. Secretary Stimson has come to his defence by saying that the rule proposed—that no one shall act as Chief of Staff who has not served with troops of the line for ten years— would have barred out George Washington, Scott, Sherman, Sheridan, and Schofield. But those men were great soldiers and leaders, officers trained in several real wars. Gen. Wood is primarily a medical man and only secondarily a soldier. To think of comparing him with men like Meade and McPherson, graduates of West Point and scientific officers of unusual ability, is to outrage the memory of those patriots. Of course, the easiest way to throw dust in the public's eyes was to say that the friends of Gen. Ainsworth are taking revenge; that the move is a corrupt bargain between Senator Warren, who wants to save the army post he has carefully nurtured at Cheyenne, and Chairman Hay, who has a grievance. Why would not an equally straightforward and, we think, a considerably more truthful statement be that Gen. Wood has disappointed and angered members of both committees of Congress on military affairs; that they, both Republicans and Democrats, have lost confidence in him because, as Chairman Hay has proved, he takes one position at one time and reverses himself the next? If there really is politics in this whole thing, not all the politics is in Congress.

The failure of *Hampton's Magazine*, after a brief and notably checkered career, will undoubtedly be cited in some quarters as another victory for the Interests in their campaign against free speech in the magazines. In this connection we may quote from George French's latest article in the *Twentieth Century*, entitled, "The Damnation of the Magazines," an extraordinary article for the way the writer's very honest statement of facts is totally belied by his conclusions and by his flaming title. If anything stands out clearly in this account, it is the fact that the damnation of those magazines that have met their fate came, not as a result of the activity of the Interests, but as the result of a vicious editorial policy and a buccaneering system of business management, both in its unscrupulousness and its extravagances.

Despite a certain amount of unnecessary rhetoric, Senator Smith's speech on the Titanic disaster is a useful summing up of the results of his inquiry. Capt. Smith he treats handsomely, beyond bringing out the one forever damning fact that he paid no attention to warnings and crashed into ice at the highest speed made on the voyage. At Capt. Lord's door he lays, and we believe justly, part of the terrible responsibility for the fearful and unnecessary loss of life. There can be no doubt that the Californian, by a rare coincidence of the sea, lay within sight of the sinking Titanic, and never moved, or even inquired by wireless what was the meaning of the rockets and lights. That is a stain upon the honor of all seamen; like that constituted by the refusal of some in the Titanic's partly filled lifeboats to go to the rescue of those whom they heard in their death struggles near by, it can only be effaced by many acts of gallantry to come. There is no doubt that if the hero of the tragedy, Capt. Rostron, had been on the decks of the Californian, the loss of life would have been reduced to a minimum—indeed, all would probably have been saved. Senator Smith is correct, too, in pointing out that there was lack of discipline on the Titanic. "If this is discipline," he asks, "what would have been disorder?"

Does not the fire on the Carmania at Liverpool on Sunday suggest that when the International Conference for the purpose of safeguarding life at sea meets it should take up the question of fire? There have been a number of such serious outbreaks on vessels of various classes during the last three years, but fortune has so greatly favored the shipowner that nothing very dangerous has occurred on board ship at sea. We are aware that if this subject is broached to shipping men a chorus of voices will at once protest that it is impossible to conceive of there being a really serious fire on a transatlantic steamer. But in view of the recent cocksureness of the fraternity that ships of the Titanic type are virtually unsinkable, it might be well to study this question also from a scientific and professional point of view. The flames on the Carmania seem to have spread with great rapidity, and the conflagration required the service of the entire Liverpool fire department. Would it not be wise to consider what would have happened had the ship been beyond the reach of city firemen? Naval officers have learned in the last two or three wars to strip their ships of everything very combustible, even making the officers' furniture of steel; at the same time, our merchant vessels have been increasing the amount of rugs, furniture, curtains, etc., of an inflammable character.

The death of Daniel H. Burnham removes a notable figure among American

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architects. An organizer of remarkable ability, Mr. Burnham had of late years become conspicuous by reason of semi-public services for which his memory will long be cherished. We refer, of course, to his interest in the city beautiful, notably in Washington, where his work in coöperation with Charles F. McKim and Augustus Saint Gaudens insures to this country one of the most beautiful capitals in the world, developed according to the original plans of Major L'Enfant. For Chicago, his home since 1856, and the scene of his chief labors, Mr. Burnham had for some years past been working on a plan which, if followed out, will redeem that city from its present ugliness. In such matters as these Mr. Burnham thought broadly and with rare foresight. He built invariably for the distant future as well as for the immediate present, and it is indisputable that he worked with genuine patriotism, as well. But for the country at large Mr. Burnham's chief service will remain the Chicago World's Fair of 1893, an exhibition for which he would not, of course, have claimed exclusive credit; it was the work of all the leaders of the profession. The ability to work with others, the power to conceive great schemes and carry them through, and the realization of the duty of the architect to public and country found in him their complete development.

Year by year the task of the baccalaureate orator grows more difficult. Once upon a time his duty was very simple. Here were several hundred young men on the point of leaving Alma Mater's cloistered seclusion for the experiences, the trials, and the temptations of the world. Warning and advice were in place. But what is there about the world to-day that a commencement speaker can teach his audience? Among his listeners are men who have managed to take away enough time from cloistered seclusion to run down in their own motor-cars for a week-end near Broadway; men who have worked their way to Europe in cattle-boats and come back as able seamen; men who have worked as bear-leaders and strike-breakers; men who have edited daily newspapers and conducted successful theatrical tours; men who have managed football finances running up into the fifty thousands; men who have held mock political conventions, pulled wires, and—alas—stuffed ballot-boxes. If your baccalaureate orator is a venerable divine of the old pastoral school, there are several things about the world which these fledglings in cap and gown could teach him.

The Cuban situation is apparently going from bad to worse. The proposed suspension of the Constitutional guarantees, which is equivalent to the declaration of martial law, and the talk of a prompt repeal of the law against organizing parties along racial lines, which is supposed to be at the bottom of the trouble, show how serious the situation is. If Congress gives President Gomez the power he desires, he can shoot captives summarily. A reconcentrado policy is also being talked of by Cubans against Cubans—the very same Cubans who were so outraged by Weyler's reconcentrado camps. But what Gomez really needs is to borrow half-a-dozen American army officers of the type of those that built up the rurales during the Magoon administration, to run the revolutionists to earth. His persistent policy of playing politics with the army, even to the extent of conniving at the attempted assassination of a high officer, is now bearing fruit in the apparent inability of his military to accomplish anything. Moreover, Gomez is hampered by his own record. Did he not become President by reason of his having taken up arms against Palma? Is it so very wicked of the negroes now in revolt to do likewise, or is it that imitation which is the sincerest form of flattery? Finally, a sinister development is the report that if the outbreak is not soon quelled, a loan will have to be arranged. It has been openly charged in the Cuban press that Gomez has taken from the Treasury its last dollar. The possibility of a financial paralysis of the republic must, of course, have been known to the revolutionists.

Discussing the system of "exchange professors" between France and the United States, the Paris *Temps* rather wickedly recalls the *mot* in one of Dumas's plays: "I have just met X. We have exchanged ideas, and now I find myself without any." It is not implied that such is the case with any of the American professors who have lectured at the Sorbonne, or with the representatives of the French universities who have brought their ideas to the American market. But there is a feeling in university circles in France that students as well as professors from abroad could find some ideas still left in France, despite all that have been "exchanged." Accordingly, a new "national office" has been created for the schools and universities of France, the chief aim of which is to give information as to what France "can offer the foreigner desirous of study." The scheme is ambitious and elaborate, covering a multitude of details about expenses and special courses and academic degrees and so on. French institutions of learning already attract many students from abroad—above 5,000 is the latest figure given—but the hope is greatly to enlarge this number by means of special appeals calling attention to the special advantages offered.

Sunday's parliamentary elections in Belgium appear to have disappointed the expectations of the Liberals and Socialists, who had joined forces on the issue of the Government's Educational bill, which provides for a state subsidy for the Catholic schools. For nearly thirty years the Clerical party has held a majority in the Chamber, and this it still bids fair to retain, though by a slender margin. The Opposition strength in Parliament has steadily increased, but any sudden overturn is made very difficult by the existing plural franchise. Every Belgian citizen above twenty-five years of age has a vote. If he is the owner of real estate to the value of 2,000 francs, or possesses a corresponding income from land or funds, he is entitled to a supplementary vote. If he has graduated from an institution of higher instruction, or holds one of the higher posts in the civil service, or is a member of one of the learned professions, he has two supplementary votes. Thus in the last legislative elections there were 986,499 single voters, 386,224 electors with two votes, and nearly 300,000 electors with three votes, the last class alone almost balancing the great mass of workingmen votes, and the second class disposing of an overwhelming majority in votes, though in a numerical minority of 300,000 in a total electorate of 1,673,000. Naturally, the abolition of the plural vote constitutes an important feature of the democratic programme in Belgium.

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DEFECTS OF THE PRESIDENTIAL PRIMARY.

Any criticism of the Presidential primaries, instituted for the first time in several States this year, must begin by admitting that the new system promises to be an improvement over the old, and that we are in for extended experiments with it. The fact that serious defects in its operation have manifested themselves, calls only for correction, not for abandonment. And even with all the confusion and mistakes and positive evils that have marked the first application of the new method, it cannot well be denied that it is superior to the old. It is superior, that is, in giving the party as a whole a better chance to express its real choice. That this opportunity has not been more freely availed of, does not affect the argument. That the results have not been such as to show that the system is incapable of abuse, is also beside the point. Grant the blunders and confess the disappointments, the true question is whether the Presidential primary, properly safeguarded, is not better fitted than the old way to satisfy the people that their wishes are respected in the election of their rulers. To create such a feeling of satisfaction is one of the great ends of democratic government.

Consider, for example, what happened last week in New Jersey. It may be true—we believe it is—that the victory of Roosevelt in the primary did not represent a real majority of the Republican party in that State. It certainly did not respond to the wishes of Republicans of most intelligence and weight in their communities. But what of that? The chance was there to make the best sentiment of the party prevail, but it was not seized. Republicans by the thousand did not vote at all. If they threw the primary into the hands of the unthinking, the flighty, the purchasable, that was their own fault. And depressing to them as the outcome was, who will assert that it was not better so than it would have been if the whole matter had been arranged in the old fashion, with Sewell and Dryden, Kean and Briggs, sitting around a table in secret and "delivering" the State's delegation?

Democracy will grasp imperfect instruments, and use good ones bunglingly; but will bestir itself to remedy defects when they are made clear to it. Now, certain weaknesses in the Presidential primary have been made so apparent in the past two months that steps must be taken to remove them before the system is put on trial again. One need is imperative. It is that of making the Presidential primary really a party primary. The laws governing it should make it impossible for Democrats to vote in a Republican primary, or vice versa. The scheme being one to ascertain the will of the party, none but enrolled voters of the party ought to be permitted a voice. Yet in Massachusetts the Roosevelt managers openly advertised for Democratic votes, and we have heard that it has been chucklingly admitted at Oyster Bay that 20 per cent. of the Roosevelt vote in Massachusetts and some other States was cast by Democrats. This reduces the whole thing to farce or fraud. Before the Presidential primary can be regarded as at all an accurate means of determining the preference of a political party, it must be confined strictly to that party.

Another thing to be taken promptly in hand is the matter of permitted expenditure of money. What we have seen this year shows the necessity of a sharp extension of corrupt-practices acts to cover the Presidential primary, and also of limiting the amounts that a candidate or his committees are allowed to expend in any given State or district. The $70,000 spent by Roosevelt in New York County was a public scandal of which there should be no repetition. If the reports of the vast sums laid out in Pennsylvania by the supporters of both Roosevelt and Taft were not grossly exaggerated, they smell of corruption. A Presidential primary that can be bought up, or that is made too expensive for any but millionaires, would be too obvious a mockery to be tolerated.

Still another reform upon which the advocates of the Presidential primary seem to be agreed is that it must be held at about the same time in all the States. The successive primaries of this year have been plainly demoralizing. We have seen the theatre of excitement and of manipulation pass from State to State. First Illinois is torn to pieces and then Massachusetts, with Ohio and New Jersey following. All the political machinery and the sinews of war are moved from one State to another like a circus on its travels. It is not only the suspense and the long-drawn fighting, so bad for the nerves of the country, that we have to consider. In this descent upon State after State, there is an open temptation to resort to corrupt methods. The moral effect of preliminary victory is felt to be so great that it will be struggled for desperately and at all costs. The danger is that we shall have a recurrence of the old evil of "October States," when Ohio and Indiana were flooded with money and overrun with politicians, while the electorate was debauched, all for the sake of "pointing the way for November." That mischief grew to be so inflamed that it was done away with in response to a universal demand; and the friends of the Presidential primary must be on the alert to prevent corruption, thrown out of the window, from coming back through the door.

MAYORS, GERMAN AND AMERICAN.

The Berlin newspapers have been giving much space to the election of their new Lord Mayor, Adolf Wermuth, well known to many Americans because of his successful management of the remarkable German exhibit at the World's Fair in Chicago in 1893. In 1900 he was appointed to the Department of the Interior, of which he became undersecretary in 1904. Four years later he became a privy councillor, and in 1909 Secretary of the Treasury, which high position he filled until a difference of opinion with the Chancellor over the inheritance-tax question led to his resigning in March of this year. To have obtained a man of Cabinet rank for the Mayoralty, and one who has been for thirty-six years in Government positions, is felt by the Berliners to be an unusual achievement and to prove to the rest of Germany that their chief executive position is worthy of the very best men in the highest places in the Government. The new *Oberbürgermeister* will receive 40,000 marks a year, or $10,000 in American money, though, of course, the 40,000 marks purchases very much more in Berlin than it would in New York, where the Mayor is paid $15,000—none too large a salary for the responsibilities carried.

The chief difference between the election of Herr Wermuth and of an American Mayor is in the term of office. Four years is the longest service of a mayor in this country. The Berlin Aldermen

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chose Herr Wermuth for a period of twelve years, being free to select from among all German citizens. If he is successful and in good health, he will be reëlected when his term expires; or he may be pensioned. In the 104 years that have elapsed since the chief or lord mayors were first elected in Berlin, only nine persons have held the position, Herr Wermuth being the tenth, giving an average service of more than eleven and one-third years. In New York there have been nine Mayors in twenty-seven years, and no less than forty-eight in 104 years. Does not this in itself suggest one reason why Berlin has been so much better governed than New York? Herr Wermuth's immediate predecessor had served since 1899 as chief mayor and for six years previously as vice-mayor. Herr Kirschner's career as a city official began in Breslau in 1873. He has, therefore, been a practical municipal administrator for a lifetime. Where can we point in this country to a Mayor who has been all his life at work on civic questions or has had a Governmental career comparable to Herr Wermuth's? Mayor Gaynor has had a long official career, but only by reason of his service on the bench. Mayor Harrison of Chicago is the only living American of whom we know who has had five terms in a large city. Ferdinand C. Latrobe held the chief magistracy of Baltimore for seven terms—fourteen years—and Mr. Harrison's father was also five times Mayor of Chicago. On the other hand, the Lord Mayor of Munich, who visited New York a month or so ago, has held his present position no less than nineteen consecutive years, to the complete satisfaction of the city.

The usual American rule, as everybody knows, is to deny a civic career to a man, however able. He has his choice, if he wishes, to serve for a lifetime as a clerk, or at most a minor official, or of becoming a partisan candidate for high office, with the likelihood of defeat at the end of one term, as it came to Mayor Low after his, and to the Socialist Mayor of Milwaukee, who, whatever his mistakes, seems to have tried sincerely to better the city. The Socialist Mayor of Schenectady is also not likely to be judged on his merits as an administrator when his term is up. He, too, will probably be fought with the cry that it is a disgrace for the city to have at its head a Socialist, whether good, bad, or indifferent. The result usually is that good men leave office after too brief service to be really masters of their tasks, while the demagogue is apt to remain for at least a term or two, by reason of his appeal to class or mob, or his skilful use of a more or less base partisan machine. Where, then, is the opportunity for a continuous policy? What the chance for an original mind to work out administrative problems?

By this comparison we do not, of course, mean to imply that we would change our democratic system overnight for the German. The latter doubtless has its defects, too, but it must be confessed that, compared with our own, the results are amazingly good. We are not prepared to say that in a vast city like New York, with its great variety of nationalities, and the marked differences in relative interest in the government between sections and classes, the people should be deprived of a direct election of their chief magistrate. But we would point out first that, by the elimination of partisanship in the government of cities, we could take one great step towards continuity of service and towards luring into municipal office more of the kind of officials who govern cities abroad. Once let us wipe out the distinctions brought about by national party names and we shall find Mayors of long service less the exception and more the rule. Moreover, no one has ever maintained that a democracy is the most efficient form of government. A relative inefficiency will, perhaps, always be the price that a democracy must pay for the privilege of having a voice in its own affairs. The end is to make that relative inefficiency as small as possible, and Mr. Bryce is not the only observer who has noticed the vast progress we have made in the right direction.

CANADA'S GREAT PROBLEM.

"Immigration to Canada," says a Government report just published at Ottawa, "is the crucial economic factor in the progress of the Dominion." The reason for this is that "every financial responsibility that has been assumed for the development of Canada, whether in pledging public credit for railways, or for civic expansion, or for industrial enterprises, has been assumed in expectation of a greater increase of population than the natural increase." The risk in such a policy is well shown by the discrepancy of three-quarters of a million people between the estimated and the ascertained population of 1911. It is this discrepancy, in fact, that has brought the problem of Canadian immigration sharply to the fore. The Dominion has long been dependent for its development upon settlers from the outside. In the language of the report, the expansion of modern Canada is the expansion of immigration. "No other country has, relatively, such a record of assimilation of non-native peoples as Canada." How warmly she welcomes them may be seen in her liberal naturalization laws, which give to any alien who takes the oath, full rights of citizenship after three years' residence. The Dominion is thus somewhat in the position which the United States occupied for the first seventy-five years of our existence. The difference is that our problem was never so acute economically, although serious enough politically, partly because we could not have mortgaged the future if we had wished, and partly because it was seldom necessary to urge aliens to take advantage of the obvious opportunities in this land.

Canada, however, cannot afford to wait for the foreigner to make up his mind. With her, promptness is one of the elements of the problem. Where shall she look for immigrants? She is receiving them from two sources which she regards as highly satisfactory—the British Isles and the United States. This double stream "kneads quickly into Canadian national life." Each part of it is desired. The Americans, mainly farmers accustomed to prairie life, go West, where their experience and ready adaptability are invaluable—such is the complimentary phraseology of the report. The Britishers, largely wage-earners, scatter over the entire Dominion. The problem is consequently two-fold: to maintain the flow to the western provinces, and to increase it in the eastern. This would mean specific encouragement of British immigration, a policy that is enforced by political considerations. This political factor has been formally recognized in the Canadian House of Commons, where a former Cabinet Minister declared it "good policy to have the bulk of your immigration from the British islands." The occasional spread-eagle utterances of prominent American politicians are hardly calculated to diminish this feeling.

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Canada's plain course, then, is to expand her immigration from Great Britain, which, owing to relative pressures of population, means not Scotland or Ireland, but England.

At this point the report begins to use guarded language. It speaks of "this rather embarrassing topic," and of the "need to handle the question frankly." The difficulty, it appears, is "the traditional British willingness . . . to unload" inferiors and their dependents on "the colonies." "Our attitude," affirms the report, "rightly is 'No inferiors need apply.'" It is not simply a state of population, then, that is to be remedied, but first a state of mind. England is interested in the immigration question on her own account because of her actual and prospective recipients of charity, represented by the eight thousand which the Bristol Civic League found within the limits of that city. This is true, even if the president of the Bristol Chamber of Commerce could go on to ask what reason there could be for a chamber of commerce to discuss emigration. Immigrants of this sort, willing and able to work, the Dominion would welcome. What she objects to is the industrially maimed and halt. The report does not hesitate to lay the blame for the English attitude towards Canada upon the English, who have much "to learn and unlearn in the way of adapting themselves to Canadian conditions." It characterizes as "ineffably foolish" the supposition of any Englishman that Canada can be adjusted to his notions on sight. And it goes so far as to point out "the overwhelming necessity that the people who come to Canada from Britain shall be prepared against exercising upon people of alien birth an influence that makes the idea of joining the Empire repellent to them."

In that last clause lies the largest consideration connected with the problem —the possibility and the desirability of making Canadian immigration a factor of Imperial unity. At the beginning of the century, only 20 per cent. of British emigration was going to British countries. In a dozen years, that proportion has risen to 80 per cent., with Canada having become the chief hope of British statesmen in that regard. On the other hand, within the last year Frenchmen have been officially warned by their Minister of Industry against emigrating to the Dominion. The need for strengthening the ties that bind Canada to the mother country is shown by the contrast that is drawn between the feeling of the Englishman in Canada and in Australia. In Australia, he finds the prevailing accent to be that of his own dear London. He hears England freely spoken of and sees it written of as "Home." He finds no large element of republicans. In Canada a different spirit prevails. Loyalty is mixed with independence. Canada needs England, but she will not cease being Canada on any terms. It is evident that the difficulties of her immigration problem are not small. The frank and thorough way in which she is facing them, however, is the best means of bringing that day which Lord Grey predicted, when Canada will be the centre of the Empire, the leader of the Britannic nations.

AEROPLANE PROBLEMS.

The solution of the problem of flight in heavier-than-air machines, which Wilbur and Orville Wright attained after years of patient experimentation, came about as a result of the partial abandonment of a preconception under which the majority of the earlier experimenters had labored. This consisted in the assumption that the flight of birds in the air could be rivalled by imitating the anatomical structure of the bird. Most of the earlier machines showed a predilection for flapping wings and curved surfaces. As late as 1897 the machine built by M. C. Ader for the French Government "reproduced the structure of a bird with almost servile imitation." Professor Langley's "aerodromes" revealed a similar tendency in the tip imparted to the comparatively flat wings. Success was attained by the Wrights in working out the principles of what may be called the non-avian school represented by Lilienthal, Chanute, and their successors in the field of gliding flight. Here the problem resolved itself into a matter of combining the sustaining energy of fairly flat surfaces with the driving power to be obtained from a highly-perfected motor-engine. The principle of bird structure was not altogether abandoned. The warped ends of the aeroplane with which the Wrights met to so considerable a degree the problem of stability hark back to the avian tradition. The monoplane, in build and still more in appearance, would seem to be a still further return to older principles. But this has seemingly been accomplished at the sacrifice of a large measure of stability as compared with the biplane.

It is not detracting from the fame of the Wright brothers and their foreign contemporaries to point out that their success was due in large measure to the development of the gasolene engine. That would explain why, independently of the Wrights though some time after them, Santos Dumont, Farman, and Delagrange succeeded in flights of respectable duration. High engine efficiency supplied not only the necessary motive power, but provided a very important factor working for stability. It also furthered the rapid development of the art by enabling men to study the problem where it could be most successfully studied—in the air. The problem of stability for the Wright biplane was solved by a highly efficient engine. It needed a still better engine, of the type turned out by the French manufacturers, to make the monoplane possible, with its greater dependence upon speed for equilibrium. Thus the automobile makers have done their part in devising motors capable of developing a hundred horsepower and being mounted on a frail structure of lathing and canvas. It was the first step to devise speed that should make flight possible. That accomplished, aviators have begun to study how to dispense with speed. Thus it may yet be the historical function of the perfected engine that it enabled men to fly long enough to master the secret of flight, or at least of perfect equilibrium, without a motor.

Hence it would appear that the old desire to wrest from the bird its entire secret has not lost its appeal. The latest experiments conducted by the Wrights at their old trial ground on the sand dunes of North Carolina were directed towards the solution of the problem of automatic equilibrium. But apparently, also, the Wrights had their minds fixed upon the question of flight without mechanical power. That would be indicated by the renewed trials with gliders which are reported to have taken place. It was characteristic of the courageous methods of these two Dayton pioneers. In their early experiments they soon found it necessary to throw over all hitherto compiled data of air pressure and to work out tables of

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their own. During six years of flight it must be that their stock of aerial data was enormously increased. And possibly the point had been reached where Wilbur Wright and his brother found themselves strong enough to attempt the realization of the dream cherished by the older experimenters—the use of the air currents by man precisely as the birds make use of them.

But the question of making the aviator independent of his engine may be conceded to be a fairly distant ideal. For the present, the great effort must be to make the aviator with his engine independent of the vagaries of the air. It would be highly regrettable if the craze for speed and long-distance records should divert attention from the problems that still await solution. The aviator reaps a harvest of fame and profit that the experimenter must dispense with. And it is the glory of the Wright brothers that they were not content to enjoy quietly the full measure of fame and wealth that came to them, but set themselves other difficult pioneering tasks. Wilbur Wright was not spared to achieve that complete mastery of the air towards which he made the first great step. A kindlier fate may be that of his brother.

AN ELUSIVE GREAT SEAL.

We have had in the current political campaign an illustration of the fragile basis on which much so-called history rests, even when the events involved are too recent to warrant a presumption of confusion in the minds of the men most actively concerned in them. The question whether Mr. Taft was or was not present when the Roosevelt Cabinet discussed the suspension of the prosecution of the Harvester Trust will never be settled to the satisfaction of everybody interested, because it must depend so largely upon the accuracy of unassisted human memories. The historian who gives any prominence to this episode must therefore content himself with quotations from the pleadings on both sides of the dispute, and leave his readers to draw their own conclusions.

Such historical difficulties are suggested also by the newspaper announcement published a few days ago of the discovery of the great seal of the Confederate States of America, "the existence of which has been shrouded in mystery for nearly half a century, . . . its whereabouts pledged to secrecy by the most solemn Masonic oath"—just why, we are not informed. The first thing that must have struck the careful reader of this news was the discrepancy among the several versions printed almost simultaneously. The seal may be old, but its discovery, or recovery, is too new to afford any reasonable excuse for the representation in one account that the United States had purchased it along with a lot of Confederate documents a number of years ago, and in another that it had been given to Rear-Admiral Selfridge at that time as a souvenir, in one that the Admiral had sold it and in another that he had presented it to the people of Virginia, etc. The single fact of importance which is left in no wise uncertain is that the relic under consideration has passed into the control of three prominent Virginians, who intend to find a home for it in one of the public institutions of Richmond.

What lends picturesque interest to the announcement of the discovery is the fact that, at intervals since the dispersal of the effects of the Confederacy in 1865, there have appeared at least two other claimants of the honor of possessing the great seal. The State of South Carolina received in 1888, as a gift from a former citizen, what purported to be the genuine article. The donor, or some one in his behalf, undertook to rehearse its pedigree, including a story of how it came into his possession directly from the hands of Col. John T. Pickett, commander of the rear guard of the Confederate forces defending Richmond, who had found it in the office of the Confederate Secretary of State while the evacuation of the city was in progress.

Eleven years later another claimant appeared in the person of a West Virginian, a descendant of Col. Alexander Boteler, chairman of the committee on whom the Confederate Congress imposed the task of procuring a seal for the infant republic. This Boteler seal, like the one which has just started for Richmond, was of silver, whereas the South Carolina seal was described as of baser metal.

But with the lapse of another eleven years there was published, under respectable auspices, a circumstantial account of the flight of the last remnant of the Confederate Government from Richmond towards the Gulf. Their final council, according to this narrative, was held in May at Abbeyville, S. C.; and that evening Secretary Benjamin asked for a hatchet, and with it defaced the great seal of the Confederacy. "About twelve o'clock the same night," the writer goes on, "the party continued their retreat . . . and while crossing the Savannah River in the darkness some one suggested that the seal be thrown overboard. . . . When the boat reached mid-stream it was dropped with a dull splash into the sandy bed of that beautiful Southern watercourse, where to this day, its mission all fulfilled, it serenely rests."

There may have been other accounts of the fate of the great seal, but these will suffice to show how easy it is, when the possible future importance of an object or an event is not in anybody's thought, for the details to become confused in the minds of those who ought to know most about it. In this instance, a presumption is created in favor of the authenticity of the relic which was the latest to turn up, by the circumstance that it was traced to its hiding-place in Rear-Admiral Selfridge's safe through some of Col. Pickett's memoranda which are now in the Library of Congress. Its hallmarks, moreover, are said to bear every indication of genuineness. But what, then, was it that Secretary Benjamin defaced at Abbeyville and somebody dropped into the Savannah River at midnight? Shall we ever find out till some enthusiast, with the persistency of Dr. Owen in his hunt for Shakespeare's head, drags the Savannah for this battered emblem of sovereignty? Or is the whole Abbeyville incident a romantic fiction, and is the adult Benjamin's hatchet doomed to pass into the same legendary limbo with the juvenile Washington's?

THE MISSION OF THE CHURCH.

"Smith doesn't care a farthing about the state of his soul . . . he declares that he believes churches are a good thing, and he will do almost anything for a church but attend its services. What he really means to say is that he thinks the church is a good thing for Jones and me, but that, as for himself, he gets on comfortably without it. And the great danger both to the church and to Smith lies in the fact that he does apparently get on so comfortably with-

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out it!" In these words Meredith Nicholson states for *Atlantic Monthly* readers one of the tremendous, if quiet, changes that have come about in a single generation. There are literally multitudes of persons who can remember, with him, communities where it was not respectable to miss "divine service." To-day there is slight exaggeration in the statement that the apologetic tone has shifted to the church attender. The burden of proof is no longer upon the one who, for whatever reason, stays away. In number, at least, he is too respectable to be denounced, and, if the whole truth is told, his respectability is a matter of something higher than mass.

Why does Smith not go to church? What makes him act so differently from his fathers? Well, Smith is not deeply concerned with the conduct of his ancestors. Art, for instance, might have interested some of them, but that would not strike Smith as any reason why he should bore himself with it. A thing must justify itself to Smith, not by having appealed to the world in the past, but by appealing to Smith now. And the church simply does not appeal to him. He answers your question of why he does not go, therefore, by asking why he should go. How are you going to reply to him? Since he has graciously said that he thinks churches are a good thing, perhaps the most plausible answer would be that he owes it to them and to himself to join in making them better—more attractive, that is, to men like himself. Even this will probably not affect his attitude. You might as well suggest that he help improve the stage or literature or newspapers. He feels that he is only a common human being, and that these things are quite outside the range of his influence. If they appeal to him, good. But if they do not, he can only let them alone and get along without them until they do, it being manifest that he can get along without them much better than they can get along without him.

The problem, then, is not how to save Smith, but the church. That this view is just the reverse of that which would have been generally taken in any preceding age merely emphasizes the difficulty of the situation. To be sure, there are persons who hold the old view. There is the anxious mother who got a religious society to pay her son a dollar for every church service he attended, hoping to see him become worthier of her love. The experiment failed. Found guilty of impersonating an officer, the youth was sentenced to a term in jail. Meanwhile, the streets are filled with young men who almost never enter a church, and yet are under no suspicion of serious misconduct. The conclusion is inevitable: either the church has exaggerated its importance, or its work is being done in other ways. We think both things are true. In the past the church professed to know vastly more than it did know of the origin and the destiny of man, and more than it is at all necessary to know in order to be a decent and even religious person; and in the present all of its non-theological activities are supplemented by other organizations. Why, then, save the church? If for no better reason, because it is poor economy to let an expensive and complicated plant go to waste instead of wearing out and being renewed like living tissue.

What shall the church do to be saved? One set of voices cries for a return to the old ways, which means, specifically, more theology. Another and larger cry is for greater social service; that is, more attention to the bodies of mankind. It may be doubted whether either alone solves the problem. The theology of the past may be dead, but, on the other hand, it is as true as it ever was that man does not live by bread alone. The question of our day is not faith or works, but what faith, what works? To give coffee and rolls to a hungry man out of a job is to serve God, if you want to put it that way, but if the church stops with coffee and rolls, it makes a ludicrously and pitiably inadequate use of its resources. Now there is a work that is not being done by any other organization in any formal way, a work that needs to be performed as sorely as any, and that is the elevation of the motives that actuate men and women, the strengthening of their better selves. This task the church has nobly discharged in previous times, and it should continue to discharge it in the years to come. But perhaps it is a task that hereafter is to be attended to incidentally rather than formally. Character, Gov. Wilson has remarked, is a by-product. Even so, the church can surely find a way to preach effectively while it is binding up humanity's wounds. And it will do well to remember that its power, like the power of any institution, bears no fixed relation to the number of persons who identify themselves with it.

RECENT GERMAN FICTION.

To weld into a book all the conscious intellectual currents and all the unconscious emotional tendencies of a certain people at a given period has ever been the coveted goal of the writer of novels. America has yet to wait for the long-heralded American novel. But Germany can now boast of a work very nearly fulfilling all requirements of such a vast undertaking. It is "Die Intellektuellen," by Grete Meisel-Hess (Berlin: Erich Oesterheld). The author attracted attention by her story, "Die Stimme," published some years ago, and later by a dignified and scholarly work on the problem of love and marriage, and has proved herself possessed of unusually mature judgment. In this book she presents what might be called a composite portrait of the young generation of Germany and Austria, which has outgrown old faiths and thrown aside old ideals and launched forth to "realize itself" with a reading of life based upon undigested science, economic data, and an exaggerated importance of the individual ego. Hence the eternal recurrence of the conflict between that ego and the social instinct, between personality (no more abused word in the modern vocabulary than this!) and society. Hence also the pitiful spectacle of intelligent human beings who waste their strength in self-indulgence, in the cult of hobbies, and the pursuit of chimeras. Hence also the emotional impotence and spiritual sterility of those precious æsthetes and supercilious intellectuals who abound in the professional circles of Vienna, Berlin, and Munich, and whom Frau Meisel-Hess has portrayed in types so true and striking as to be unforgettable.

Into this world the author has placed some women, among them one exceptionally gifted who seeks fulfilment of her life under less restricted conditions than her orthodox Jewish home. Her experiences in the quest for happiness, in connection with those of her brother, her cousins, and her friends, make a well-constructed and absorbing narrative. But in the spirit of the book lies its greatness. It is written from the standpoint of one who has known the Odyssey of the modern ego, who understands and yet does not despair of humanity. She smiles at the futile affectations of the æsthetes and the destructive speculations of the intellectuals. She looks upon the panorama of contemporary conflicts as upon inevitable and logical phenomena in the development of society. There is no proselytism for any new theory, for any new experiment in

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the more intimate relations of human life.

The problem of love and marriage is the engrossing topic of many new stories. A very original variation upon the old theme is that of the Swiss writer, Ernst Zahn, in "Die Frauen von Tannö" (imported by G. E. Stechert & Co.), in which the author treats with admirable discretion the complications arising when a pedagogue reformer tries to pledge to celibacy the women of a rural community which is ravaged by an apparently hereditary ailment. Another unusual theme is skilfully handled by Carlot Reuling, in "Die Strasse der Erkenntniss" (Egon Fleischel & Co.). The hero of this novel suffers from having fallen heir to his father's great name and reputation for brilliancy, and the tragedy reaches its climax when he proposes to the girl he loves and discovers that even here his progenitor had preceded him. Hermann Stegemann, the Alsatian writer, draws in his "Theresle" (imported by G. E. Stechert & Co.) a heroine who, with an infallible intuition for the right course to pursue, works out her salvation independently of her family, and from a simple waitress rises to the ownership of a summer hotel. Karl Bittermann strikes a timely note in his story, "Der Ruf der Felder" (Egon Fleischel & Co.), in which he traces the regeneration of his peasant heroine, who had followed the lure of the city and only on her return to the soil returns to her better self.

A group of stories by women about women deserves special mention. Gabriele Reuter's singularly charming and pathetic story, "Frühlingstaumel" (Berlin: S. Fischer), relates the experiences of a gifted actress who convinces her audiences of the genuineness of her feelings, but in real life fails to find credence. The caddish hero is drawn with great subtlety, and an eccentric woman painter supplies an element of grim humor. Helene von Mühlau's stories are rather depressing, dealing mostly with blighted lives, but there is strength in them. "Eine irrende Seele" (Egon Fleischel & Co.) is a remarkable study of a sensitive soul whose vitality is exhausted in the conflict between her illusions and the real world. "Nach dem dritten Kind" dramatically presents the tragedy of an army officer's wife whose family increases out of proportion to her husband's income. An unusually good first book is Elsa von Bonin's "Das Leben der Renée von Catte" (Egon Fleischel & Co.). In the heroine and her brother Hannsbabo the author has drawn types of the old aristocracy of the "Mark," with a sure and sympathetic touch which suggests the study of Fontane.

Hans Heinrich Ehrler is also a new name. His "Briefe vom Land" (Albert Langen) is a simple love story in the form of letters, containing some choice bits of description of a most delicate feeling for nature and revealing a character of unusual distinction. With a dramatic power surpassing even his strongest work so far published, Ludwig Thoma has in "Der Wittiber" (Albert Langen) moulded into a grim tragedy the story of a widowed peasant who, in his hunger for affection, drifts into a love affair with a servant girl, and himself becomes a drunkard and his son a murderer. Lulu von Strauss und Torney, in her "Judas" (Egon Fleischel & Co.), also presents a rural tragedy, but upon an historical background, the scene being a German village in which the news of the French Revolution suddenly rouses the simple country-folk to violent resistance against exploitation and abuse by the authorities in power. This, however, is only the background for the story of two brothers, the elder, a drunkard, neglecting and mortgaging the family place, the younger working as a hired hand to save it for the other's wife and children, but a victim of the villagers' vile suspicions. The author has a keen insight into the folk-soul and has succeeded in giving her work a touch of the heroic epic. Rudolf Herzog, who lectured for the Germanistic Society this season, has also written a story with an historical background, "Burgkinder" (imported by G. E. Stechert & Co.). The central figure is a very sympathetic character, living a recluse life in a castle near the Rhine, and bringing up the orphaned children of a French refugee. The story has strong dramatic moments, when the blood of the father asserts itself and calls them to espouse the cause of his country and ally themselves with his people.

A. VON ENDE.

NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

The publications of the Bibliographical Society of England are necessarily limited in their circulation. It is expressly stated that copies can be supplied to members only, and "in no case can more than one duplicate copy be supplied to the same member," unless that member has "lost or damaged" his. In some cases, no doubt, the supply is fully equal to the demand. Many would reckon their libraries complete without the "Dictionary of Booksellers and Printers at work in England, Scotland, and Ireland, 1641 to 1667," or the "Abstracts from the Wills and Testamentary Documents of Binders, Printers, and Stationers of Oxford from 1493 to 1638." But the Society's latest volume, "A List of English Editions and Translations of Greek and Latin Classics Printed before 1641," has a distinct interest and value for students of the classics, and it is to be regretted that so few of them will ever have the privilege of reading it. It has been compiled by an American, Miss Henrietta Palmer, for whom Victor Scholderer has written an excellent Introduction.

The authors are arranged alphabetically, Greek and Latin together, and even the Pseudo-Classics are included. For instance, "The Hystorye Sege and Dystruccyon of Troye, by Dares Phrygius, which was a souldier while the Siege lasted," appears in three English translations made in the middle of the sixteenth century, and "The Riddles of Heraclitus and Democritus," printed in 1598, and equally a work of fancy, is ranged alongside of the authentic classics. We suspect that the "Historical Treatise of the Travels of Noah into Europe," by Berosus the Chaldean, a writer who survives in a few fragments, represents merely what Berosus might have written on this subject. In fact, to be strictly accurate, the word "classics" should have been omitted from the title.

In the list one notices, in the first place, the total absence of Æschylus, which is not surprising when one remembers that, for generations after the Aldine edition was published, his text was so corrupt as to be unintelligible. Of Aristophanes one play, the "Knights," was edited in 1593; no play was translated. Sophocles is represented by an edition of the "Antigone," 1581, and what seems to have been an adaptation of the "Œdipus Rex" in three "Cantoes," published in 1615 and not now extant. Euripides comes off best with three entries, a free translation of the "Phœnissæ," an edition of the "Troades," and Erasmus's Latin version of the "Iphigenia at Aulis."

The dramatist who appealed most to the taste of the age was Seneca, who has more entries than any other writer except Virgil and Horace. Plato was neither translated nor edited, but two editions of the spurious "Axiochus" appeared in 1592 and 1607.

Among the translators, Chapman with his Homer, Hesiod, and partial translation of "Hero and Leander," stands head and shoulders above the rest. Men who had the scholarship necessary for a translation were engaged in reconstructing corrupt texts and would have thought translation beneath them. Such work was done chiefly for moral edification, and by inferior scholars. Many curiosities of literature are included in this list, for instance, the version of Martial in Welsh (1571), and the translation of Horace's "Satires" in 1566 by Drant, who in his preface says that he has "shaved off Horace's hair, pared his nails, and wyped away all his vanity and superfluity of matter." Another eccentric work is Stanyhurst's version of the first four books of the "Æneid," which Professor Saintsbury has called "the most absurd book in all literature." It is written in English hexameters constructed on the classical basis of quantity instead of accent. This sort of thing was called "reformed verse" and more distinguished writers than Stanyhurst, Abraham Fraunce, for instance, followed the fashion.

In 1585 reformed spelling had reared its head, and we find an edition of Æsop entitled "Æsopz Fablz in tru Ortography with Grammar-notz." With a few exceptions which became English classics, such as Chapman's translations and North's "Plutarch," these editions and translations are accessible only in such libraries as the British Museum, the Bodleian, and the Library of the University of Cambridge, and several are not positively known to have existed except in the intention of the author who procured a license

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for their publication and perhaps went no further.

Correspondence

THE TESTIMONY OF A FRIEND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am of those who used to think that Mr. Roosevelt's was the case of an impulsive man, whose heart was right, who acted and spoke as he really thought without much regard for consistency, but with real sincerity. But my eyes were opened. His inconsistency is calculated and deliberate. He plays to opposing sides of the gallery. His untruths are calculated and deliberate lies, uttered for the purposes of deceit. To say that he would not stir a finger to attract a corrupt boss is crass nonsense. He would not only raise his finger to beckon such a man, but he would as effusively grasp that man's hand and shake it with warmth as he does the greasy hands of locomotive engineers—when reporters are around. The proof is at hand. He did that very thing with Boss Cox in Cincinnati. He did, indeed, refuse to dine at a public dinner if Lorimer were there, but that was to catch pious gudgeons. He shook Cox's hands to catch political gudgeons. This has been his constant habit through life in order to promote politically his own personal fortunes.

A young naval officer, an enthusiastic admirer of his, wrote me the other day that his course of late had somewhat weakened respect for him, but he was in favor of Mr. Roosevelt's policies, and therefore would support him. I entered into no argument with him. I simply suggested that he take pen, ink, and paper and write down in succinct form what he considers Mr. Roosevelt's policies to be, and I prophesied that he would be rather astonished when he got through with the job. He has promised to do so, and I am awaiting the result with some interest. When he tries to jot down in black and white the rambling, incoherent, inconsistent, hazy utterances of a demagogue, and formulate them into statesmanlike propositions of concrete policies, his mind will be in a state to receive information, to which it is now impervious.

The best way for any man to decide for himself whether Mr. Roosevelt is a true man is to ask himself a few questions:

(1.) What did Mr. Roosevelt say to the American people about Taft in 1908?

(2.) What has he said of Mr. Taft in 1912?

(3.) Has he not unsaid in 1912 everything he said of Mr. Taft in 1908?

(4.) If yea, is he speaking falsely now, or did he speak falsely then?

(5.) If it is not a case of bearing false witness, then or now, was he deceived then, or is he deceived now?

(6.) If he spoke falsely then, what was his motive?

(7.) If he speaks falsely now, what is his motive?

(8.) If, after years of close acquaintance and intimate intercourse, with ample opportunities of knowing the character, disposition, and ability of his one-time friend, he was so wofully deceived in 1908 as then to paint him as a strong, able, and conscientious man, or is so wofully deceived now as to vilify him as a weakling, an ingrate, and a hypocrite, what guarantee have the people that he is not, or will not be, equally deceived in the men who now, or hereafter will, surround him?

(9.) If his tongue cannot be depended on to tell the truth, or his judgment to discern character, whichever it be, is it the part of wisdom for the people to put him in a position where the consequences of his false witness, or misplaced confidence, whichever it be, will be disastrous to the country?

(10.) When he is charged with having arrested, as President, the prosecution of the Harvester Trust, at the request of the very capitalist who is now showing his gratitude—for favors to come, as well—by financing his present campaign, is it any answer for him to say that his Secretary of War, whom he then sought to promote, the President whom he is now seeking to destroy, was an acquiescing party thereto? And, if it is no answer, what shall be thought of the sincerity of a man who denounces favoritism in public and practices it in private?

If you think the letter is worth publishing as the opinion of one who, in his younger days, believed in Theodore Roosevelt as a man, and, like him, was a Republican, and, like him, said he would not vote for James G. Blaine if nominated, and, unlike Theodore Roosevelt, stood by his words, whereas Theodore Roosevelt ate his; and if you value the opinion of a man who, ever since 1884, has fought to the best of his poor ability fraud and chicanery in his party's politics, while Theodore Roosevelt, in public, was ever professing to fight the bosses, and in private was lying down with them as meekly as any lamb, obtaining office by their means, and now seeking to do the same, even to the extent of buying away from his former friend the Southern officeholders; and if you think this letter ought to be over the name of the writer, you are at liberty to publish it.

In the younger days of this republic, its citizens were wisely taught to fear "the man on horseback." Mr. Roosevelt, in his pose as a "rough rider," in his insane ambition for a third term, in his demagogic appeals to passion and prejudice, in his insensate egotism as the only man who can do things, in his crudities and ravings, is the man on horseback whom we have most to fear. John Brooks Leavitt.

New York, May 28.

THE "HAT SPIRIT" OF OYSTER BAY "JUDGED DOWN" IN 1672.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Oyster Bay style of losing first one's hat and then one's head in the prize-ring was condemned by judicious Friends two hundred and forty years ago to-day.

An account of the American journey of George Fox, 1671-3, printed in the January number of the "Journal" of the Friends' Historical Society, London, thus describes the visit to Oyster Bay, May 17-27, 1672:

"Thence wee went about 40 miles to oyster bay where was a Generall meeting wch held 6 dayes and was lardge where wee mett with som of the hatt spirits wch was Judged Downe & condemned and the truth was sett ouer all."

Verily, "truth is mighty and will prevail" in the long run, over the hat spirit and the prize-ring method.

Veritas clamantis in deserto.

Hanover, N. H., May 27.

THE ORIGINATOR OF THE FEDERAL IDEA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The criticisms of a recent publication (Taylor, "Origin and Growth of the American Constitution") involve an historical problem that merits further comment. The one fundamental question at issue is: Who originated the Federal Idea? By the Federal Idea is meant the idea of a confederation having a central Government armed with the power to legislate, independently of State Governments, directly upon individuals. This power is exemplified typically in the ability to tax individuals, and is, of course, diametrically opposed to the unwieldy system of levying quotas upon colonies or States.

The author of the volume in question (pp. 28-29) explicitly states that this Federal Idea is the fundamental concept of the Constitution:

> Approaching it on its financial side, he [Pelatiah Webster] set for himself the task of constructing an entirely new Federal fabric to be endowed, for the first time in the world's history, with the independent power of taxation. . . . In that fundamental concept was embodied the path-breaking idea (*bahnbrechende Idee*) that wrought the revolution.

But on page 21 occurs the sweeping and erroneous statement: "Certainly at the time of the making of our first Federal Constitution neither Franklin nor any other American statesman had conceived of a Federal system armed with the power to tax."

On the contrary, it is certain that Franklin had conceived of exactly that kind of a system as early as 1751, and got it embodied in the Albany Plan of Union in 1754. In short, he originated this central idea of the Constitution more than a score of years before the publication of Pelatiah Webster's interesting pamphlet of 1783.

In dealing with the Albany Plan, the author of the recent volume asserts (p. 122) that "the scheme of taxation contemplated in that plan was simply the requisition system, based on quotas." This point may be settled by referring to the reprint of the plan in appendix iii of the volume itself. The author reprinted the document, but erred in accepting an interpretation of it given in an older, secondary work. He failed to practice the precept of Langlois which he often repeats: "There is no substitute for documents; no documents, no history."

To lead up to the Albany Plan of 1754: None of the plans of the preceding sixty years suggested even faintly the Federal Idea. (For the text of these plans see Carson, "One Hundredth Anniversary of the Constitution," Vol. II, appendix). Franklin first suggests Federal taxation of individuals in a letter of 1751 (reprinted in Smyth, "Writings of Franklin," III, 42).

Again, in Franklin's "Short Hints" on a plan of union, drawn up and submitted to some of his friends, just before the Albany Convention of 1754, the financial scheme suggested three years earlier was somewhat elaborated, as follows:

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General Treasury: Its fund, an excise on strong liquors, pretty equally drunk in the colonies, or duty on liquor imported, or—shillings on each licence of a public house, or excise on superfluities, as tea, etc., etc. All of which would pay in some proportion to the present wealth of each colony, and increase as that wealth increases, and prevent disputes about the inequality of quotas.

Here, then, is a direct statement made by Franklin, before he attended the Albany Convention, to the effect that his new plan of taxation was for the explicit purpose of obviating the difficulties of the old quota system.

As finally embodied in the Albany Plan of 1754, Franklin's new idea takes the following form:

Power to Make Laws, Lay Duties, etc.: That for these purposes they [the President-General and Grand Council] have power to make laws, and lay and levy such general duties, imposts, or taxes, as to them shall appear most equal and just (considering the ability and other circumstances of the inhabitants in the several colonies), and such as may be collected with the least inconvenience to the people; rather discouraging luxury, than loading industry with unnecessary burthens.

The Federal nature of this plan is again attested by the further provision that, besides a general treasurer, the Grand Council may nominate and the president-general confirm, a "particular treasurer" in each colony to have charge of the funds arising from the Federal taxes.

The fundamental nature of the new idea embodied in the Albany plan is further revealed by an elaboration of that idea in another plan drawn up later in the same year. The Massachusetts plan was proposed by a committee of the Assembly of that province. The original copy of the plan is in the handwriting of Thomas Hutchinson, who was a member of the Albany Convention. This plan is largely an elaboration of the Albany plan, with a few important changes.

The Massachusetts plan provides more machinery for carrying into effect the Federal legislation and tax-levies. "Collectors" of the general taxes are to be appointed in each colony. "And all laws and orders for enforcing the payment thereof in any and every colony . . . shall be as fully and effectively observed and executed as if they had been the laws of that particular colony where any offence shall be committed, and all offences against such laws and orders shall be tried and determined accordingly."

Here, then, is a complete Federal system, the Federal laws to be enforced by the courts of the land and, since the proposal was to establish the articles of union by act of Parliament, there would be provided a supreme court in the Privy Council.

The people of Franklin's day did not fail to recognize his early contribution and its likeness to the Constitution of 1787. When the Albany plan, with comments on it, was printed in the *American Museum* of Philadelphia in 1788, the man who submitted the paper for publication wrote as follows to the editor:

New York, Oct. 28, 1788.

Sir: As I am one of the numerous admirers of your valuable museum, I beg leave to suggest an important production of Dr. Franklin's, to your notice—which ought to be wrested from obscurity—and deserves a place in your museum. I mean a plan of government for America, promulgated at Albany in 1754. I am surprised it has lain dormant and unnoticed among all the publications on the subject of the new government. As the outlines of the plan bear so strong a resemblance to the present system, it will not only prove extremely interesting, but will tend to convince the wavering, that the new constitution is not the fabrication of the moment, but urged upwards of thirty years ago by that great man—even when we were subordinate to a superior head. May we not then reasonably suppose he never lost sight of his favorite system, till, in the end of his life, he has lived to see it accomplished?

I am, etc.,

A true Patriot and Federalist.

Due credit should be given to Pelatiah Webster, and to all others who in the years just preceding the Federal Convention of 1787 proposed new ideas or modified older ones that were to become embodied in the great instrument. But in the matter of priority of suggestion as regards the "great discovery," the "wholly novel theory," the historian must go farther back than 1783 or 1781. The one absolutely fundamental principle of the Constitution was thought of at least as early as 1751, and was formulated in detail in 1754. So far as can now be determined, the originator of the Federal idea was Benjamin Franklin.

RAYNER W. KELSEY.

Haverford College, May 23.

Literature

AN EXPERIMENT IN PEDAGOGY.

The Montessori Method: Scientific Pedagogy as applied to Child Education in "The Children's Houses," with Additions and Revisions by the Author. By Maria Montessori. Translated from the Italian by Anne E. George. With an Introduction by Prof. Henry W. Holmes. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.75 net.

In an heroic age like our own, when every scientist is either Newton or nobody and none may be a Kipling who is not also a Shakespeare, it is rather difficult to do justice to a clever and sympathetic woman who offers a suggestive experiment in pedagogy, especially when she announces herself as only the third person who has had anything significant to say. Those who have heard of the Montessori method as a revolutionary discovery will be disappointed to learn that it is a method which, unnamed, is practiced to some extent by every intelligent mother of young children. Any child so fortunate as to own a nest of small boxes, which he piles one upon the other, pyramid-like, in the order of size, is illustrating the Montessori auto-education in the matter of dimensions. The child whose godless parents allow him a pack of playing cards with which to satisfy his delight in the construction of mathematical series, possesses good "didactic material" for education in number and arrangement. And every mother who wisely prefers to let the child work out his own salvation in these matters, with attentive and sympathetic observation and only a little judicious assistance, has grasped the idea of the Montessori teacher. Nor is Dr. Montessori the first to appreciate the impediments to quiet and orderly behavior which are presented by the size and weight of the chairs and tables, the doors and the steps, of the adult household; nor the first to seek a remedy. To appropriate all of these ideas as one's own private "method" is much like seeking a patent for paring potatoes with a knife.

Yet in justice it must be said that to Dr. Montessori belongs the credit of perceiving their possibilities for a system of education and for elaborating them into an institution and a method. The volume in which her method is expounded is fresh and readable, even where it is technical, and it may be cordially recommended, not only to teachers, but to every parent of young children. It reveals to us an attractive personality, a woman of native originality and keenness of intelligence, who has a genuine love for children and a sympathetic insight into their point of view, and who is at the same time well trained in medicine and biology, though her psychology is not to be commended. But, what is most to the point, she is able to show us her method in operation and to offer results.

These, however, are subject to two important limitations. In the first place, the "Children's Houses," as her schools are named, have so far been designed for only very young children, from two and a half to seven years of age. It is clear that a method adapted to children of this age might have no relevancy whatever to the education of older children—and in particular the method of auto-education and the liberty of the child. Whatever discipline we might impose upon the older children, few of us would deny that the young child should be largely untroubled by responsibilities and for the most part simply allowed to grow. Yet there is no evidence that Dr. Montessori's theory is mindful of this limitation. In the second place, the Children's Houses have so far been chiefly occupied by the children of the very poor. The Children's House was, in fact, in its inception, a sort of day-nursery, established in a tenement-settlement, for the children of working mothers. For these it may be surmised that the exercises in cleanliness and order, in bodily grace and in manners, have a special, though not exclusive, application. And probably these are the children who, because of hereditary insensitiveness or of poverty of stimulus in their surroundings, have the greatest need of education of the senses. At any rate, successful results with children of this class would not conclusively justify the universal adoption of a system of education based upon methods of teaching defectives.

For such, indeed, was the origin of

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the method. Dr. Montessori regards herself as the lineal and sole descendant of Itard, a prominent physician of the period of the French Revolution, who conducted the education of the idiot boy known as "the wild boy of Aveyron," and of Dr. Edward Séguin, who, taking the work of Itard as his starting point, founded and conducted various institutions for the feeble-minded in France and the United States during the latter half of the nineteenth century. Dr. Montessori tells us that her own "true degree in pedagogy" was obtained from two years' experience with the feeble-minded in Rome. Séguin's method was to lead the idiot "from the education of the senses to general notions, from general notions to abstract thought, and from abstract thought to morality." But though, as Dr. Montessori asserts, by this method the idiot became normal, he remained inferior, and for her the chief result was to suggest how much more might be accomplished by the same method for the normal child. The opportunity came for putting the suggestion into practice when the Roman Association for Good Building invited her to undertake the organization of infant schools in its model tenements, and in 1907 she opened the first *Casa dei Bambini*. To appreciate the appalling conditions which Dr. Montessori and the Association sought to remedy, one should read her eloquent Inaugural Address, printed as chapter iii of "The Method." The idea was quickly adopted in other countries, especially in Switzerland, where there are now seventy Montessori schools.

Two purposes are combined in the Children's House: it is both a school and a pedagogical laboratory. Nor is it always clear whether its fundamental principles, the liberty of the child and the passivity of the teacher, are determined by the welfare of the child or by the desire to preserve him as good material for scientific observation. For Dr. Montessori, however, the two ends are coincident. Hence, the function of the Montessori teacher, or "director," is, above all, to observe. She is never to point out errors, for even slight errors show that the child has ceased to be spontaneous and needs a change of occupation. Her active responsibilities are confined chiefly to a forecast of the direction of the child's activities and a provision of the suitable material; and assistance should be offered only when it is welcomed. The ideal Montessori teacher must, therefore, be a person of rare tact and discernment.

On the other hand, since there is little or no formal teaching, one director may easily conduct a Children's House of forty or fifty pupils, who may be in attendance from nine o'clock until five. Here, as Professor Holmes points out in his Introduction, the Montessori school differs from the kindergarten. "While kindergarten children are generally engaged in group work and games with an imaginative background and appeal, . . . the Montessori children spend almost all their time handling *things*, largely according to their individual inclination and under individual guidance." Indeed, the idea of a Children's House is that of an all-day home specially furnished both for the comfort of children and for their assumption of its entire care. There are no fixed desks or benches. The chairs, tables, and rugs must be light enough to be easily carried by the children themselves from the house to the garden—of course, there must be a garden in which the children can work. A bathroom is a most important feature, and a rest-room where hammocks can be slung is highly desirable. There must be a supply of dishes and of pitchers and basins for washing the hands, all of a size to be easily handled by children. Upon the educational value of these arrangements Dr. Montessori lays great stress—and rightly. They constitute "didactic material" of a most important kind, which even the better homes do not always supply, not merely for training children in independent responsibility for the decencies of life, but for cultivating bodily grace and poise and the ability to perform bodily tasks with a minimum of strain and noise.

This, indeed, embodies the Montessorian conception of discipline. Her idea is that children have a natural love of accomplishment, are delighted to do what they know how to do, and will willingly obey an instruction where they are not annoyed and impeded by ignorance, awkwardness or unwieldiness of the material to be handled. Undoubtedly there is much truth in this. At the same time the poise and maturity of good breeding attained by the Montessorian infants is somewhat astounding, and there is evidence of a good deal of make-believe in "the liberty of the child." In some cases, as in the "lessons in silence," where the children are rendered breathless by the suggestion that they may hear the baby breathe, or "the whisper of the trees," it seems that the liberty of the child is but another name for the shrewdness of the teacher.

So far, however, the institution appears to be an admirable one, and especially adapted for its original purpose and environment. Possibly much may still be said for the exercises in the discrimination of sounds, colors, forms, sizes, weights, odors, smooth and rough surfaces, which, under the head of "education of the senses," constitute a large part of the curriculum. A typical illustration of the method employed is furnished by the series of geometrical "insets," or, better, inlays, each of which just fits a depression cut for it in a board or frame. The selection of the proper place for each figure is both a fascinating game and a cunningly devised method, characteristic of the system of auto-education, for drawing attention to differences in form and testing correctness of discrimination. Yet it is just here that we begin to doubt. Some of these sense-tests invite constructive analysis; others by their very nature forbid it. As a matter of mere sense-education, it may be doubted whether these formal exercises, however important for the dull or defective, add anything of value to the similar education which a wide-awake child receives at every moment of the day.

The chief question, however, is that suggested by the programme of "intellectual" education, as exemplified in the process of learning to write. For Dr. Montessori this is both an after-thought (it was the children and their parents who urged it) and a cherished discovery—namely, that, by the utilization of energy now wasted, any normal child can equal the performances, say, of the son of Boris Sidis. By means of free exercises in tracing geometrical figures around the edges of the insets, which are used as patterns, and then in filling in the outlines, the muscles are trained for the use of the pencil and also coördinated with the eye. Then to the child are given sand-paper patterns of script letters, pasted upon cardboard, to trace first with his finger and then with a pencil, and at the same time he hears the sound of the letter. This is the first of Séguin's "three steps"—the association of the visual and muscular-tactile sensations with the sound. The next is to select or to trace the appropriate letter when he hears the sound; and the third is to give the sound when the letter is pointed out. Presently, after much repetition, he combines a number of letters to form a word; and in the process of learning to write he has virtually learned to read. Dr. Montessori claims that by this method children of four learned to write neatly within three months.

This may well be. No observant parent will venture to deny the possibility. The question is rather whether a sufficiently docile puppy might not have done the same—that is, a puppy willing, like the Montessori infants, to practice blindly all the analytic steps; and whether in intellectual quality the result would have been measurably different. For the method is strikingly similar to the method of teaching a dog tricks. Dr. Montessori would reply that the dog misses the joy of recognizing in the combination *m-a-n-o* the familiar word for hand. But she admits (pp. 303, 304) that her own pupils did not always enjoy this pleasure—that is, they did not recognize their acquisition as *language*—and it is evident that any such recognition was independent of the method. The truth is that the psychology of the method is crude. Dr.

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Montessori fails wholly to distinguish between an intellectual achievement and the formation of a habit. She places before the child the predigested results of analysis, trusting to the brute force of association to effect a coherence and a meaning. It is true that in the acquisition of reading and writing association plays a large part. Yet even here there is room for a genuinely intellectual activity in which the amount of repetition otherwise necessary would be reduced by the child's analysis of his task. Unhappily, however, any effort to understand what he was trying to do would impose a certain strain upon his mind. So far, then, from converting the normal child into an intellectual prodigy, we may doubt whether the method suggested by the education of idiots will develop even the normal average of intellectual power.

If the method is to be confined to children under seven, the weakness of its intellectual programme may not be serious. It will be a vital weakness if, as it seems, the Children's House is to be the model for a general system of education.

CURRENT FICTION.

Hieronymus Rides. By Anna Coleman Ladd. New York: The Macmillan Co.

This is a book of "Episodes in the life of a Knight and Jester at the Court of Maximilian, King of the Romans." It is the story of Hieronymus of Cologne, bastard son of Emperor Frederick IV. With royal and gypsy blood in his veins, he falls naturally into adventures both chivalrous and madcap. For the love and service of his half-brother, Maximilian, he fights Turk and Moor; he submits to torture and imprisonment and at the last suffers the death which was meant for his kinsman. He is by turns soldier, knight, madman, jester. He loves deeply twice and gypsy-wise once. In his company we fall in with fifteenth-century characters of every description: emperors, priests, statesmen, soldiers, peasants, cutthroats, Venetians, Tuscans, Spaniards, Germans, Turks. We have history and biography, wars and public policies, and, in equal amount, heraldry and millinery. The translation from this to that period is complete with no tang of affected archaism. The chronicle is supposedly supplied by one Martin, chaplain to Maximilian. But as this is not practicable through all of the hero's innumerable adventures, the pen of Martin appears and departs with rather disillusionizing effect. The whole furnishes a striking picture of the times and a most lovable portrait of a mad, sad, merry, loyal spirit. Endless research must have gone to its making. It is perhaps a certain monotony of tone that makes the story, for all its stir of incident, sit a little ponderously on the reader. There is no shading; the falcon figures as large as the lady, as in a vast decorative drawing, without perspective. But it is a thoughtful work and repays reading.

The Chink in the Armour. By Mrs. Belloc-Lowndes. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This is not, as the title might lead one to suppose, a swashbuckling romance. There is not a sword-thrust or a "'Sblood, Sir!' he cried," between these modest covers. The time is the present, and the scene is a gambling resort not far from Paris. Bring to that resort a young and innocent English widow, with a tolerably good income, a wonderfully good pearl necklace, and a desire for experience, and you have a situation sufficiently modern. Frank Danby handled a similar motive very disagreeably in "Baccarat." Mrs. Belloc-Lowndes is incapable of being disagreeable. Her style has something of the vague lady-like charm of Mrs. De la Pasture's gentle pen; and the thrilling situation towards which the whole invention moves would be more thrilling if it did not have the effect of being told at second-hand—like a child's version of a ghost-story. Sylvia, the heroine, is the dainty blue-eyed, golden-haired English heroine of (English) fiction, ready with her blushes, and capable of fainting on occasion; and she makes a quaint figure in the Casino at Lacville—an airy-fairy Madeline with modern improvements. She is particularly original in her final choice, not of the faithful English suitor, but of the French gambler who has been the unconventional comrade of her somewhat risky but never risquée escapade.

The Green Vase. By William R. Castle, jr. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

In a sense this is a geographical romance, for its development turns on the inheritance of Old Boston traditions, on the spiritual emptiness of South Boston, and on the soul-cleansing influences of the Arizona desert. South Boston weds latent Old Boston in the shape of ancestral tastes lying dormant in the heart of a wage-earning maid. Genuine Old Boston, one who "thought naturally in terms of Japanese prints," breaks the bonds in which "generations of virtue" have held him; under pressure of tragic opportunity he possesses himself of Old Boston manquée and carries her off to fulfil her thwarted dreams of beauty. The attempt goes down in failure, but the Arizona desert purges each and every one of dross till in the end righteousness and peace and atavistic tendencies kiss each other.

Much is interesting in the unfolding of the story, and much is crudely, irritatingly improbable. Perhaps the foremost outrage on belief is the love of Helen for Henry. His lack of æstheticism must have shown itself, if he is correctly described and quoted, long before they came to the marrying point—very long before the arriving bride was confronted in the new home by "The Green Vase," symbol of the Philistinism which was to wreck her peace. The reappearance of her worst gossiping enemy as a trusted friend is absurd; so is the behavior of the Beacon Street fine lady who chokes and whines and weeps, seen and heard, before each of the two men she loves in vain. The social handling of the story in all its strata, low and high, is disturbingly forced. The desert influence is well depicted, and the desert affords perhaps the only ground where these distorted souls could plausibly find themselves again. There is no denying that through thick and thin the interest holds, but it is the interest of wondering how it will all come out rather than of a sense of solidity in the material.

The Return of Pierre. By Donal Hamilton Haines. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

It is surprising to note how little plot is requisite nowadays for a novel. Pierre Lafitte, a young conscript, returns from his three years' service to his home in the little village of Ardun, and finds his sweetheart apparently betrothed to another man. The Franco-Prussian war breaks out; Pierre reenlists and fights through the war, rising to the rank of captain. The rival, who has proved to be a German spy, dies; and on Pierre's second return he marries his old love. This, with the help of large type, thick paper, and much description of army life and battle scenes, is able to pass as a novel. The author has evidently studied the history of the war with some care, and the character of Pierre is sympathetically and rather well presented. But the book lacks body and saliency; it is not much more than a diluted short story.

HARVARD ESSAYS.

Harvard Essays on Classical Subjects. Edited by Herbert Weir Smyth. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. $2.25 net.

Of these eight readable and instructive essays three may be classed as simple expositions, three as inquiries or investigations, and two as partaking in some measure of both qualities. In "The New Criticism of Roman Art" Professor Chase gives a clear and judicial account of some recent attempts of German scholars to rescue Roman sculpture from the undue disparagement which was the natural result of the revelation of the Greek originals to nineteenth-century Europe. The connoisseurs of the Post-Renaissance centuries accepted the mar-

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bles of the Roman galleries as ideal masterpieces and unapproachable models. But after the work of Winckelmann and the transportation to the European museums of the Elgin and Ægina marbles, Roman sculpture came to be valued by Hellenists mainly as material and documents for the reconstruction of the history of Greek art. The new criticism is more than a counter-reaction in favor of the rehabilitation of Roman work. It is an endeavor to assign it its true place in the larger evolution of mediæval and modern art. In opposition to the abstract idealism and conventional limitations of Greek sculpture, the special innovations of this Roman art are "the illusionist manner, the development of the background, the elaboration of naturalistic plant and floral ornament, the continuous method of narration, and the production of novel optic effects by deep undercutting and isolation of the figure." These traits Professor Chase exemplifies in their historical development by careful description, accompanied by illustrations, of the four great typical monuments: the Ara Pacis Augustæ, the central reliefs on the Arch of Titus, the reliefs of the Column of Trajan, and certain of the reliefs on the Arch of Constantine.

The late Prof. M. H. Morgan's essay on "Some Aspects of an Ancient Roman City" gives more than its title promises. Beginning with the contrast which Pompeii suggests with the broken skyline and smoke-laden atmosphere of a modern metropolis, he passes on by insensible transitions to a more general comparison of the external conditions of ancient and modern life, and in a succession of pregnant paragraphs illustrated by a wealth of anecdote and quotation contrives without pedantry to compress into the compass of a readable essay a veritable handbook of antiquities.

Professor Jackson's study of Alciphron is something more than a direct matter-of-fact account of that entertaining ancient letter-writer. It treats of Alciphron's typical significance as a representative of the Greek literary revival under the Roman Empire, known as the "New Sophistic," and interestingly traces his indebtedness to Athenian comedy for many of his most amusing incidents and traits of character.

Though various aspects of the subject have been studied by Gaston Boissier, Reitzenstein, Wilamowitz, and Schneidewin, Professor Gulick is in a sense breaking new ground in his "Notions of Humanity Among the Greeks." So vague a term demands perhaps a greater nicety of definition and a fuller citation of the sources than was compatible with the plan of this book. When we have discriminated the various English, French, and Latin associations of *humanitas* and its paronyms, there still remains the delicate problem of correlating these words with their nearest Greek equivalent. Professor Gulick is always interesting and suggestive, but neither he nor any other student of the topic has avoided the pitfalls which these ambiguities set for unwary or too ambitious generalizers. He is, of course, aware of, and explicitly refers to, the fundamental distinction between humanism and humanitarianism. But the uncritical reader will sometimes be led to confound them in his rapid and not always quite adequately motivated transitions from the one point of view to the other. It is one thing to write the history of the growth of pity, helpfulness, human kindness, and humanitarian sentiment, and quite another to trace the development of the ideas, or ideals, of culture, the educated man, humanism, and cosmopolitan breadth of view. The two series may be associated in our own ultimate ideals, they may tend to develop *pari passu*, but there is no necessary connection between them. Professor Gulick's essay is richer for his bringing together of all the passages suggested to him under either head. But some of the interpretations into which this breadth of treatment seduces him tempt to a minuteness of criticism which would do injustice to his work as a whole. A doubtful passage in a spurious letter attributed to Dion is hardly sufficient authority for the statement that Plato uses the word *apanthropos* "of one who isolates himself from the wisdom and judgment of his fellowmen." The associations of the English word "resignation" carry us far from the *Verneinung* of the will, which for Schopenhauer was the essence of the highest Shakespearean tragedy, and to say that Alcestis was "resigned" to die for her husband is no answer to his statement that ancient tragedy exhibits quiet submission to the inevitable, "aber kein Aufgeben des Willens zum Leben selbst." Schopenhauer himself enumerates instances of self-sacrifice in Greek tragedy, but his point is precisely this: that self-sacrifice for a cause is not Hamlet's or Macbeth's final recognition of the worthlessness of all causes. Professor Gulick's essay, then, is a good beginning, but a really critical treatment of the theme demands a philological apparatus which he could not present in a popular essay.

Professor Parker's "Plato and Pragmatism" illustrates the versatility, or perhaps the virtuosity, of a well-trained classicist. He has assimilated the style of his colleagues of the philosophical department, as he might adopt that of Livy for an exercise in Latin prose composition. A foregone conclusion is dramatically presented as a succession of tentative inquiries in which the reader is taken into partnership, and all ideas make their entrance upon the stage embodied in personifications and metaphors.

In "Ovid and Metamorphosis" Professor Rand writes with his usual felicity and literary charm, and in the illustrative original translations incidentally reveals himself as a skilful master of the Popian couplet. The high value of the entire essay as an interpretation of Ovid seems to us quite independent of what an abstract résumé would have to single out as its main thesis. Professor Rand is entirely right in his protest against the view that the "Metamorphoses" is to be read as a useful compendium of all mytho'ogies conceived in the spirit of its Greek predecessors or of Boccaccio's "De Genealogia Deorum." Admirable is his defence of the wit and fancy of the "Amores" against the censure that sees only indecency in their playfulness, or the pedantry that complains of the lack of the lyrical cry in their persiflage. He justly maintains the essential unity of Ovid's work by showing that the "Metamorphoses" approaches both life and mythology from the same point of view. But in the management of his transition to this final thesis, he, like his author—*nimium amator ingenii sui*—lets his wit run too far. "Change and transformation in the realm of ancient legend allured him now, because in that little world of contemporary mythology which he had built, change and transformation had played a sovereign part." This is a clever and arresting way of making his point, but in all soberness it is surely straining the analogy thus to identify the transformations of mythology, or the old philosophic and poetic topics of mutability, with the sudden shifts in point of view and the Heinesque or Horatian parody of one's own emotion that are the distinctive notes of the "Amores." And, similarly, though there is truth in the main contrast between Ovid's unreserved allegiance to flux and flow and the Lucretian vision of indestructible atoms as that which abides in change, the antithesis is not aptly illustrated by the line,

> Haec quoque non perstant quae nos elementa vocamus.

It is quite fanciful to take this as an anticipation of our new physics. The *elcmenta* of Ovid's line, as Professor Rand is, of course, aware, are neither the atoms nor our elements, but the traditional quaternion, earth, air, fire, and water, and the impermanence and the transformations of these had been a commonplace from Plato's "Timæus" down. In fact, Ovid is doing little more in this passage than repeat Lucretius's development of the theme, and his *summa tamen omnia constant* also repeats the Lucretian formula for that which abides, *summarum summa est æterna.*

Space fails for an abstract of the two longest essays, Professor Moore's "Greek and Roman Ascetic Tendencies" and Professor Smyth's "Greek Conceptions

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of Immortality from Homer to Plato." These two complementary studies in the history of religious ideas, as already intimated, may be classed both as expositions and inquiries. They are masterly expositions and condensations of the work of predecessors in this field, but it is apparent on every page that the authors have studied the original sources afresh and are either drawing their own conclusions or giving a personal expression to ideas which they have made their own. Taken together, the two essays form an excellent introduction to the history of ancient religious thought as opposed to mythology on the one hand and cult on the other.

The editor's preface, speaking of the wide diversity of topics treated, claims no other unity for the book than that of the Harvard conviction "that the literature and art of Greece, and the literature and art of Rome, are so intimately bound together that they may not suffer divorcement." To this the reviewer is happy to add a certain unity of style and tone, in qualities which it is pleasant to believe are distinctively American. A similar volume of German essays might display more erudition or originality. A French volume might possibly maintain a higher level of interest and literary charm. An English volume might exhibit finer single passages of eloquence—purple patches of declamation or description, or dreamy, romantic sentiment. But one would have to look far to find eight essays by different hands so uniformly temperate and rational in style as these, so free from fine writing, bad taste, grotesque imagery, extravagance, exaggeration, and perverse ingenuity.

The book is appropriately dedicated, in a graceful copy of Greek elegiacs, to Prof. William Watson Goodwin, the honored master of all Harvard Hellenists of the past two generations.

Geschichte der Frankfurter Zeitung. Volksausgabe, herausgegeben vom Verlag der Frankfurter Zeitung. Frankfurt am Main.

When, in 1906, the *Frankfurter Zeitung* celebrated its semi-centennial, the paper published a book commemorative of the occasion, which was mainly intended for private circulation. This has now been reissued in a *Volksausgabe*, a stout volume of 1,100 pages, which brings the history of the journal and its connection with public events down to date. Aside from its immediate purpose, the volume possesses genuine general interest as a reference book of some of the most important political and commercial happenings of the world during the past fifty years.

Few journals anywhere can look back upon a past of similarly consistent and successful aims. The paper has had the good fortune to be, from the day of its foundation, in July, 1856, to the year 1909, under the sole control of an editor and publisher of singular integrity, sagacity, and power. Leopold Sonnemann issued in Frankfort at first a modest *Geschäftsbericht*, which rapidly developed into a *Handelsblatt*, and on this commercial basis he reared the journalistic structure which has become one of the world's great newspapers. The public career of the proprietor kept pace with the development of the journal. Sonnemann became the leader of the German *Volkspartei*, and an important member of the Reichstag, besides occupying positions of honor in the city of Frankfort. He died, universally respected, October 30, 1909.

As the organ of the Democratic party in Germany the *Frankfurter Zeitung* has come into frequent conflict with press laws, and with the powers which, under the changing conditions of the fatherland, enforced the laws with varying severity as suited their purposes. In July, 1866, when the Prussians occupied Frankfort, the editors, for publishing an article hostile to the conquerors, were forcibly taken from their sanctum and marched off to headquarters. After some military browbeating, they were, however, released the same day. In times of peace the editors fared worse. Not infrequently they were called upon to defend themselves against charges of disrespect to the civil and military authorities, including Bismarck and the Emperor, and in several instances the sentence was for imprisonment. In its relations to Bismarck the journal does not lay claim to absolute consistency. It is not ashamed to own that its first estimate of him was far from accurate. On the 26th of September, 1862, it devoted to the new president of the Prussian Ministry, Karl (*sic*) von Bismarck-Schönhausen, an editorial expressing its complete distrust of the man who had attained power by a *coup d'état*. A few weeks later he was characterized in its columns as "a nobleman and diplomat of the old school, a man who can talk brilliantly about a good many things, but is an easy-going amateur in everything, and knows nothing of the people, its views, aspirations, and hopes." The astute Berlin correspondent, who wrote thus, predicted Bismarck's downfall within a year. A more serious mistake in its course, which the *Zeitung* does not attempt to palliate even now, was its sympathy with the Paris Commune in 1871. The letters from Paris which Ludwig Pfau wrote to the paper at that time, expressed "the sharpest condemnation of the doings of the victorious party." With all its persistent advocacy of the rights of the people, the *Frankfurter Zeitung* has always drawn a sharp line between the party of pure democracy and the Social-Democrats, and has found few kind words for Lassalle and his followers, though never in favor of anti-Socialist laws. Nor was it ever an enthusiastic advocate of popular government measures. Its attitude towards the colonizing policy of Germany and her military expansion has been uniformly cool and guarded.

One of the great merits of the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, in American eyes, was its stanch advocacy of the cause of the Union during the Civil War. At a time when some of the most influential German papers, including the *Cologne Gazette*, leaned towards the Confederacy, the *Frankfurter Zeitung* preached faith in the permanency of our institutions; and, what was of great practical importance, in the soundness of our credits. On the fourth of July, 1876, the *Zeitung* issued a special centennial number, joining in our rejoicings. It was the first paper on the continent of Europe to send a permanent correspondent to New York, and in 1873 was the only European journal, besides the London *Times*, that published special cable reports about our railway crisis. Its judgment on American affairs has always been sane and well-informed. It early recognized the advent of the United States as a world power, but refused to join in the general cry of the "American peril." In 1907 Theodor Barth wrote for its columns a series of remarkable letters concerning our economic and political developments. Latterly, it has shown keen insight into our conditions by predicting a possible third candidacy of Roosevelt on the expiration of President Taft's present term.

The *Frankfurter Zeitung* justly prides itself on the excellence of its *feuilleton*, in which department it is surpassed only by the *Neue Freie Presse* of Vienna, a journal with which it shares the completeness of American financial news, while leaving it far behind in regard to other information of our doings. In the list of the many men of international fame who have contributed to the *feuilleton* of the *Frankfurter Zeitung* are the names of Tolstoy, Anatole France, Robert Koch, Björnstjerne Björnson, Georg Brandes, Jozef Israëls, Maeterlinck, Strindberg, Verga, Fogazzaro, Claretie, D'Annunzio, Arrhenius, Humperdinck, and others of similar eminence.

While the *Frankfurter Zeitung* does not, perhaps, survey the whole field of European and transcontinental politics as systematically as, for instance, the *Kölnische Zeitung*, and in its editorial columns does not always display the impartiality of, say, the *Weser-Zeitung*, there are in the German language but three or four Berlin and Vienna papers that rival it in variety of contents and in journalistic enterprise of the best sort. And none has shown greater earnestness in upholding the advocates of universal peace and international arbitration. Nor, finally, has any other

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European paper cultivated such pleasant relations between employer and employed. The list of those who, according to the volume before us, have completed a twenty-five years' service, or celebrated a jubilee of some other kind, in the editorial and administrative offices of the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, is quite impressive, and so is that of the savings, pensions, annuities, and other funds for the benefit of all the employees to which the proprietors have contributed their share.

The American People. Vol. II: The Harvesting of a Nation. By A. Maurice Low. Houghton Mifflin Co. $2.25 net.

In tracing the main threads of American national psychology from the Revolution down, Mr. Low's style becomes more oracular than it was in the first volume. It may require a little mental readjustment on the reader's part to make the necessary allowances for rhetorical exaggeration. This will appear incidentally in our quotations. Mr. Low's main thesis is that our democracy has progressed strongly and normally, that it has completely assimilated successive immigrations, that it has broadened its outlook through assuming the responsibilities of rule beyond the seas. He formulates somewhat elaborately a law of immigration by which each incoming mass forces its immediate predecessor up a peg in the social and economic scale, while the excess of male immigrants encourages intermarriage both with our native-born women and with those of earlier immigrant stocks. In short, there seems to be an automatic principle of assimilation by which racial character is broken down almost as soon as the newcomer lands. At this point the prevailing ardent democracy takes him up and Americanizes him. This process is keenly analyzed, though Mr. Low's alleged laws of social promotion through competition at the bottom will presumably cease to operate as cheap land and jobs become rarer. It is well observed that no national ideas of any sort can be traced to any of the early immigrant races. Indeed, the process of Americanization has been ruthlessly prompt and complete.

Any undue elation we may draw from Mr. Low's very favorable political analysis is tempered by his wider social generalizations. Here the ampullosity of his style and his habit of quoting with confusing generosity from our newspapers and magazines may partially conceal the sting of a very severe criticism. Under the delusion of a false chivalry we have made of our women a rather expensive sort of household pet, shutting them off from all real interests and influence:

> Presidents have not been made or unmade by a woman's smiles or a woman's wiles; love of woman has made no man patriot; no man has played traitor to win a woman's favor. In American history there is neither Helen nor Borgia. . . . American history, because woman has neither reigned nor ruled, is at once the most decorous and the dullest of which we have any mention.

Deprived of these perturbing and romantic elements, American social life and political ideals have reduced themselves to an ardent and unreflective equalitarian democracy. Under the resentment of superiority, manners have gone by the board. Americans, as Mr. Chesterton once shrewdly remarked, have not bad manners, but no manners. The same instinctive dislike of authority has made us a lawless people and impatient of all restraint. The striving for immediate and material ends has kept our minds in a rudimentary stage. "The American mind has become shallow, almost childish, with an extraordinary power to generalize, but strikingly deficient in the ability to analyze, a mind with neither depth nor breadth nor grasp." Thus our politics have been highly fickle with few leading and consistent ideas. All the European monarchies have been more genuinely progressive and radical in actual legislation. Our hope lies mostly in a certain vitality of the democratic principle and in the chance that as a world power we may achieve a more comprehensive notion of the state.

Such in essentials is the picture Mr. Low draws, though his circumlocution obscures the outlines. At bottom it is not unlike Kipling's portrait. Both are caricatures, and both have much truth in them. An incapacity for ideas is an honest British heritage, which is, however, especially graceless in a nation unprovided with compensatory guiding prejudices. Our regrettable shortage of Helens and Lucrezia Borgias is due to the fact that we unhappily derive not from the British aristocracy but from the British middle classes. Our exaggerated alertness and impatience of legal constraint are qualities proper to near descendants of successful pioneers. A somewhat jealous and unmannerly democracy is a necessary defect of a society still quite fluid as regards classes. These are commonplaces upon which it is not profitable to dwell.

Mr. Low's book, taken broadly, is at once interesting and singularly academic. Washington, where he is a veteran newspaper correspondent, is possibly the worst place to undertake such a work. And, in fact, Mr. Low has a little the look of being left high and dry in critical isolation amid the dehumanized science of the Government experts, the detached curiosity of the diplomatic circle, and the limited intellectual complacency of the Congressional set. Add to this a journalistic reverence for the casually printed word, and the reasons are complete for not taking this very readable book too seriously.

On many sides the author's information is strangely inadequate. The intellectual and specifically Socialistic ferment introduced with the German and Russian Jews he quite ignores. It is a force seriously to be reckoned with, and for better or worse constitutes a contribution of ideas in our body politic. Mr. Low seems unaware of the meaning of the eager and sometimes inchoate efforts for self-culture expressed in the Chautauqua movement and the women's clubs. The gradual Continentalizing of American habits of recreation, largely through foreign travel, escapes his notice. The growth of well-endowed art museums and institutions for disinterested research throughout the land might well have occupied his attention. These things are symptomatic of a more diffused and less narrowly concentrated democracy, of a growing interest in the things of the spirit. The so-called Progressive movement he takes on a Wall Street rating at far less than its real significance.

On the whole, this is a stimulating book, quite candid if a little pretentious, and serviceable by way of reminder that democracy must be weighed not by its inner passion, but by its results in human happiness. In this sense the democratic experiment in America is still inconclusive.

The Russian People. By Maurice Baring. New York: George H. Doran Co. $3.50 net.

"My object in writing this book," Mr. Baring explains in his preface, "is to supply the average reader with an introduction to the course of Russian affairs; to supply him with a rough idea of those things which, it is generally assumed, the student will have found out for himself." He intends his book to be more elementary and entertaining than "the serious, well-built, and accurate works of the classic writers on Russia, such as Sir Donald Mackenzie Wallace, M. Leroy-Beaulieu, Professor Morfill [who scarcely belongs in this company], or Professor Pares."

The volume hardly corresponds to the author's intentions. Though it is written in a lively, journalistic style, and is in many ways a useful addition to English books on Russia, it is not consistently elementary, rather less so than Wallace's great work, and it is not so "well-built and accurate" as one might expect of an author who, though addressing himself to untrained readers, does not wish to sacrifice the high standards of the "classic writers." Its most valuable feature is a sketch of the general course of Russian history from its beginning to the nineteenth century, comprising about a third of the whole book, and drawn largely from the work

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of Professor Kluchevski. This is clear and entertaining, filling a distinct gap in popular historical literature. The opening chapters, on Russian physical geography, the Russian character, and Russian manners and customs, are equally successful. On the other hand, the chapters on the emancipation of the serfs, the mir, the zemstvo, and the revolutionary movement, are inferior to the accounts of the same topics already accessible in Wallace, Leroy-Beaulieu, or Pares, not only in scientific worth but in clearness and charm of presentation. An exception may be made, however, of Mr. Baring's treatment of the positive and negative results of the revolutionary agitation of 1904-7, where he is on ground not covered by previous writers, and where he performs his task well.

Faults of detail are numerous. The chapter on Pushkin is a gaudy patch, disfiguring rather than adorning the historical narrative upon which it is sewn. Some slips are evidently due to haste in writing. Yet not even a journalist can be pardoned for calling (p. 195) Nicholas I and his brother Constantine sons of Alexander I instead of his brothers, or for classing (p. 188) Tatishchev (died 1750), and Kantemir (died 1744), as writers in the reign of Catherine II (1762-96). More important, the statements (p. 322) on the changes of the electoral law for members of the Duma are sadly confused; Mr. Baring apparently jumbles together two distinct events. The modification of the electoral law by means of the Senate's interpretations, after the dissolution of the first Duma in July, 1906, was indeed technically legal; the promulgation in June, 1907, of a new law for the election of the third Duma was in flat defiance of clause 87 of the fundamental laws, to which Mr. Baring himself refers, since that clause provides that no temporary measure, adopted by the Government between sessions of the Duma, shall alter the electoral law for that body.

Notes

Amundsen's book on his expedition to the South Pole is appearing serially in Denmark and Norway; the publisher is Gyldendal of Copenhagen and Christiania.

Cassell & Co. have in press John Redmond's new book, "The Home Rule Bill." Mr. Redmond deals with the historical aspects of the question, and analyzes the new bill, of which the complete text is given.

This week Holt will issue "France in the Time of Philip Augustus," by Achille Luchaire, edited by Louis Halphen and translated by E. B. Krehbiel.

Something should be said in commendation of Edwin Fairley's edition of Buckley's translation of "The Odyssey," books vi-xiv, xviii-xxiv (Merrill). Buckley's text has been altered and generally improved with the aid of the better-known translations by Butcher and Lang, and by Professor Palmer, and a short introduction, a few pages of notes, and a glossary of proper names have been added. The binding is not ugly, the paper and type are unusually attractive.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for May contains an article by Dr. A. Wegener in which the origin of the continents is treated from the point of view of geology, the physical arguments having been stated in the April number. In the military department there is an account by Hauptman G. Kuchinka of the Russian railways from a military geographical standpoint, and a description of a projected railway in the Chinese province of Shantung to connect the open port of Chifu with the interior.

"The Use of the Bible in the Education of the Young" (Longmans), by T. Raymont, is offered as an aid to elementary and secondary teachers in adapting Bible instruction to their pupils. The fact that Biblical instruction of any kind is rigidly shut out of the public schools of so large a portion of this country leaves such a book a somewhat narrow field with us, so far as its practical use by teachers is concerned, but Mr. Raymont's presentation of the subject offers many good suggestions to parents who are interested. Leonard Huxley has edited a volume of representative selections from the writings of Matthew Arnold, entitled "Thoughts on Education" (Macmillan). The arrangement is chronological, and the source of each extract is indicated by title and page, except in the case of selections from Arnold's annual reports as inspector.

The "Proceedings of the Bostonian Society," just published, contains an interesting account by Charles F. Read of Washington's three visits to Boston. The first was in 1756, to confer with Gov. Shirley, then Commander-in-Chief of His Majesty's forces in North America, to arrange a question of military precedence. In his "Notes" on that journey, he writes that he treated some ladies "to ye Microcosm" while in New York. According to an advertisement in the *Mercury* of that date, this was an "elaborate and celebrated piece of mechanism, called the Microcosm, or the World in Miniature. Built in the form of a Roman Temple, after twenty-two years of close study by the late ingenious Mr. Henry Bridges of London. It will be shown every day from six in the morning till six at night to any select company (not less than six), at six shillings each." There is also an account of the Latin Grammar School of Boston, England, by J. J. McGinley, which existed as early as 1329. The present structure was erected in 1567, and soon after, according to the records, it was agreed "that a Dictionarye shall be bought for the Scollers of the Free Scoole; and the same boke to be *tyed in a cheyne*, and set upon a deske in the school, wherunto any scoller may have accesse as occasion shall serve." One of the school buildings is the old Guildhall, interesting to Americans, as it contains the stone cells, with iron gratings, where the Pilgrim Fathers were imprisoned. It is fast falling into ruin, and a subscription has been raised to restore this "valuable relic of antiquity."

The fur trade had so much to do with the discovery and settlement of the West that every scrap of information concerning the method of its exploitation is of importance. For this reason, the publication by the Lakeside Press of Chicago of the "Autobiography of Gurdon Saltonstall Hubbard," in the series known as the Lakeside Classics, is a matter for congratulation. Mr. Hubbard entered the service of the American Fur Company in 1818, and for the next few years was generally a member of what was known as the "Illinois Brigade," which spent each winter purchasing furs from the Indians in the vicinity of the Illinois River. In the spring the thirteen boats of the Brigade were united from the various trading stations, and sailed with their cargo of furs on the spring flood up the Des Plaines River and across the Chicago Portage to Lake Michigan and thence to Mackinaw, the centre of the fur trade of the Northwest. In his old age, Mr. Hubbard wrote the recollections of these experiences. This autobiography was privately printed by his family some years ago, but is now republished from the original manuscript in the Chicago Historical Society. The little book is exceedingly interesting and full of information on the early history of the Lake region.

The Carnegie Institution of Washington has undertaken the republication of the leading classics of International Law. The first volume published is a treatise by Richard Zouche, who was a judge of admiralty from 1641 to 1649, and, as the editor puts it, "a good specimen of the civilian who was produced at Oxford, while the thorough drill in the old system of legal training as revived by the impulse given to it by the Italian refugee, Alberico Gentile, still lasted on." The work is edited by Prof. T. E. Holland, and consists of two volumes, the first an exact reproduction of the original edition of 1650, the second an English translation. Zouche does not give his own opinion on any point, but, as he states in his preface, after adducing cases and principles, and expounding the arguments on one side and the other, he leaves the judgment of the hearers free and unfettered. Though a great number of the questions propounded by him are now only of historical importance, several of the points he raises are unsettled even at the present time. He was the first to use the term "International Law," and the great merit of his work is that he conceived of the Law between Nations as a whole, and that he recognized war as merely the means by which, as a last resort, the rights which the nations enjoy in time of peace may be vindicated.

While inclined to be repetitious, especially regarding the work of the State University, Frederic C. Howe's "Wisconsin: An Experiment in Democracy" (Scribner) is a clear and interesting summary account of the series of steps that has centred the attention of political students upon the Commonwealth of La Follette. The first chapters of the volume, narrating the struggles of the future Governor and Senator against the forces in power, are easily the most entertaining. They have somewhat the interest of an epic. With the removal of La Follette from the scene, one's point of concentration is gone. The dramatic contest between youthful Progress and hoary Re-

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action is succeeded by an unexciting, although by no means uneventful, period of development, with the expert in charge everywhere. One's attention, accordingly, becomes diffused. But the story which the book unfolds is too important to need extraneous attractions. The direct primary, the regulation of railway rates, employer's liability, State insurance, tax equalization, and extension of the opportunities of the University are among the "experiments in democracy" of these twenty years. The unique feature of Wisconsin politics and administration is the part which the University plays. It is the State research laboratory, in which questions are investigated, policies formulated, and bills drafted. With one hand it reaches the Capitol, and with the other the most distant farmer. By such achievements as that of making Wisconsin the second State in the Union in dairying, it has won the admiration of the most hard-headed agriculturist, so that farmers are now following their sons to Madison for a few weeks at least in the University's lecture-rooms and stock pavilion. Mr. Howe is too enthusiastic over what has been accomplished to be well qualified to point out weaknesses, actual or potential; and, like the men who have made the new Wisconsin, looks upon Germany, because of its devotion to efficiency, as the model state. In both of these respects his comments and conclusions need modification, but as a record the book is highly valuable.

Although the humor of calling English women "John Bullesses" is exhausted before the end of Yoshio Markino's "Miss John Bull" (Houghton Mifflin Co.) is reached, the picturesque language of the well-known Japanese artist holds to the end its naïve charm. His highly complimentary opinions of English babies, girls, and women are saved from monotonous sweetness by the prick of humorous criticism. Witness the incident of the old lady who obstructs the entrance of the omnibus. "I don't say every one. Perhaps one among ten thousands," he adds. "The British public is very polite. They dare not utter grumplaining words to old ladies." For the new word Mr. Markino deserves the freedom of the land of Lewis Carroll. He looks at all sides of his subject:

> Talking generally, the John Bullesses have very charming and romantic appearance just like butterflies. They are the good subjects for novels, poetries, and pictures. But their inner side is very much *matter-of-fact*. . . . What I like best in John Bullesses is that their nature is quite sentimental, yet they absolutely deny it. This very spirit has brought up many a great hero and heroine in England.

The lover of nature speaks in his admiration of the "gracious and benevolent trees" at Windsor, and of the young ferns that "timidly came out from the cool moisted ground in the shape of question marks." His loyalty to England, he declares, is not unpatriotic.

> Nonsense! It makes me so grieved I think that there are many fools who misunderstand the word "patriotic" as "the fighting spirit" with the neighboring country. Don't you know friend-making is far more patriotic? . . . May the graceful Queen forgive my dreadfully ragged English, for my heart is in the full uniform before her Majesty.

He philosophizes, among other things, on dress: "When the old women try to dress up themselves to look younger they look even older than their real age. . . . You cannot imitate your neighbor's religion. So with the dresses." The secret of dressing well, he declares, is to have a costume in which one is "comfortably contented"; "if you have your heart and soul well in them, you look quite well; even if your dresses are most extraordinary." To these reflections he was led by seeing a suffragette in a motoring costume with a "roofed cap and in long boots." To the cause of suffrage he gives his Banzai, and closes an entertaining book with a description of the "picturesque and poetic" procession on the 17th of June, 1911, "one of the nicest and most successful things the suffrage John Bullesses have ever done." An effective adjunct to his amusing but not wholly idiomatic prose is his thoroughly idiomatic self-expression in many pen-and-ink sketches and a few full-page drawings of charming color and design.

Prof. William Dallam Armes has done a good service to scholarship by his careful editing of More's "Utopia" in Robynson's translation (Macmillan). The volume, which is intended as a text-book for college classes, is provided with an introduction, excellent concise notes, a glossary of archaic words, and with an analytical index, a most desirable feature in connection with a book like More's, which discusses a profusion of topics. In the introduction More's literary art receives very explicit treatment, and his influence as an intellectual figure is well summarized.

The latest publication of the Irish Texts Society is a reissue of Volume III, "The Poems of Egan O'Rahilly." O'Rahilly was perhaps the most important of the Munster poets of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Certainly none of them is read with more enthusiasm by Irishmen to-day, and the first edition of his poems was quickly exhausted. The Irish Texts Society, in providing for a new issue, took advantage of the opportunity to include additional material, and the present volume is extensively enlarged and revised. Five new poems—one of them, the "Elegy on Blennerhasset," being of considerable interest—have been added to the body of the work; several historical documents, illustrating various poems, have been inserted in an appendix; and the introduction has been largely rewritten, and many statements corrected or modified. In short, for all purposes of scholarly consultation the new edition entirely supersedes the first. We might add that the original editor, the Rev. Patrick S. Dinneen, has been assisted in the revision by Tadhg O'Donoghue.

To The Spell Series (L. C. Page), which has already explained the secret allurements of Holland, England, and Italy, Mrs. Caroline Atwater Mason adds a volume on "The Spell of France." It would have been better, we think, to have inserted the qualifying word "southern" in the title, inasmuch as Mrs. Mason deals only with the countries of the Midi, Provence and Languedoc. For, although she has an undeniable right to prefer southern France to northern France, and to find an authentic "spell" only in the former, she and her publishers have no right to ignore a possible difference of opinion in so arbitrary a fashion, which, moreover, might well mislead the prospective purchaser. This criticism aside, the author has produced a pleasant little volume in that sentimental and semi-fictional vein which seems especially to attract the American public. Here the necessary historical and archæological information is conveyed to the reader in a sprightly dialogue between husband and wife as they make the round of the famous sites and antiquities of Arles, Nîmes, Avignon, Vaucluse, Pont du Gard, and the stations of the Riviera and the Pyrenees.

It is a book of simple and genuinely enthusiastic enjoyment in beauty of land and magnificence of man's work, and, last, but perhaps most pungent and exhilarating of all, in the humors and small memorable adventure of foreign travel, with its chance encounters and fleeting acquaintances.

Believing that earlier biographers of Josephine, like Aubenas and Saint-Amand, have been too favorable to Napoleon's first wife and portrayed her more as she ought to have been than as she really was, Joseph Turquan some fifteen years ago (before the appearance of Masson's valuable work on the subject) undertook to write a life of the "real" Josephine. Part of this, dealing with the period from 1796 to 1804, is now put into English by Miss Violette Montagu, "The Wife of General Bonaparte" (Lane); a second volume on "The Empress Josephine" is in preparation. M. Turquan very properly prints many of the passionate letters which Napoleon wrote to his wife from Italy immediately after their marriage; they leave no doubt about the ardor of his love for her at this time, but they were not appreciated by his wife, who took more interest in her poodle and in other admirers. Otherwise, M. Turquan's material is largely drawn from well-known memoirs. Many of his passages are mere flights of his own sentimental imagination, disparaging moralizations upon feminine frailty, and such exclamations of sympathy as "Poor Bonaparte! How his love was misunderstood!" "Poor fellow! He was very much in love!" Some of these passages may be tolerably *réussi* in the French original, but in English they seem mawkish, and make the portrait of this foolish, unhappy coquette perhaps less attractive than she really was.

The "Comparative Grammar of the Greek Language" (Frowde), by Joseph Wright, is intended for students, not for specialists, who are referred to more extensive treatises, listed in a select but fairly representative bibliography. It contains, therefore, little that is original and devotes but small space to controversial theories. It aims to be comprehensible from the beginning by students with little or no knowledge of Sanskrit, and attains this aim much more often than other similar treatises. Characteristic of the method is the large number of examples cited, upwards of fifty in many cases. The author rightly believes that examples are more effective than statement. There is, however, no indication that any list is exhaustive, even when it contains but three or four. In general we miss an attempt at historical treatment of the development of forms. Occasionally distinction is made between historic and prehistoric periods of Greek, but this is not consistently carried out, and no genuine perspective is exhibited. But there is

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a good index, and the book is usable and accurate.

Science

The history of the beginning of aviation, with which Claude Grahame-White's "The Story of the Aeroplane" (Small, Maynard) opens, is filled with many incidents that could only be known to a pilot of wide experience and acquaintance. More than any previous writer on the subject, the author has an insight into the character of the men by whom the conquest of the air has been made. He describes with particular vividness Blériot's crossing from France to England on July 25, 1909. An account is given of Blériot's flying school at Pau, which was made necessary by the demands for aeroplanes and for instruction in managing them after he flew over the channel. The development of the aeroplane engine follows, and in this, as in other chapters, the author tells an agreeable running story. The sensations of flying are also elaborately set forth, together with Mr. Grahame-White's experience while he was learning the art. Notable flying records are chronicled in seven tables, and the aeroplane death-roll is given in a manner similar to that found in the author's previous work written jointly with Henry E. Harper. After the accident list, the subject of the safety in flying is taken up, a long chapter being devoted to the question. Among many other matters treated in this chapter is the difficulty of navigating an aeroplane in a strong wind. The following quotation is suggestive of the progress that may be expected:

> No passenger-carrying service will be possible, either, until the aeroplane is able to meet adverse weather. Of course, one does not imagine that a flying-machine will be able to fight against a gale. Nobody expects that—at least not for a very long time to come. But what the aeroplane wants to do is to be able to fly in any such high or gusty wind as we have on many days in the year. Such winds do not approach the velocity of gales, but they are sufficient, at present, to keep an aeroplane to the ground. It is clear that the aim of every one who has the interests of flying at heart must be to rid the aeroplane of this reproach of being unable to fight a wind.
>
> M. Blériot, M. Farman, M. Paulhan, and nearly all the greatest of the world's thinkers in the matter of air craft, are now hard at work upon this problem of conquering the wind. M. Paulhan has very clear and definite ideas on the subject. His theory is that a machine must be made with its plane surfaces capable of being altered in size as the machine passes through the air. Already, with an experimental machine, he has demonstrated that the mechanical difficulties of reducing the surface of a plane without robbing it of its strength can be overcome. The idea of this reduction in surface is simple. If it can be brought to perfection, some design will be adopted whereby a pilot, by the movement of a lever near his seat, will be able to "reef" his sails, like those of a ship.

The military aeroplane is discussed at length, and there are many stories of the aviation meets in various countries in which the author has taken part.

"Let's Make a Flower Garden," by Hanna Rion (McBride, Nast & Co.) goes to prove that more than mere garden knowledge is needed for the making of a good garden book. Here the personality of an artist, showing itself in a style both clear and humorous, and in a broad, if occasionally whimsical, outlook, helps to unite garden sense and garden sentiment. Though written for beginners, this record of personal experience may well be read by the seasoned gardener, not only for its advice, but also for its individuality and taste. Whatever the author touches—and she wanders to wild gardens and to birds—she handles with an excellent balance between the practical and the personal. The volume is attractively printed, and is well illustrated by photographs and by drawings by Frank Verbeck. Form, style, and matter combine to make this one of the best flower-garden books of recent years.

"Everblooming Roses" (Duffield), by Georgia Torrey Drennan, does not bear out all the promise of the title-page, which suggests that the book is a practical guide in "culture, habits, description, care, nativity, parentage." A practical guide the book is not; for although considerable definite advice is given, this advice is diffuse and haphazard, mainly by reason of the author's "I'd like to say more but can't just now" style. On the other hand, the chatty historical and literary allusions and digressions are inclined to terminate suddenly before a formidable wall of floral names—including Rhyncosporum jasmanoide. Roses that "amateurs need never attempt to grow" are discussed at length, the "touching history" of Souvenir de Malmaison is given in full, and meanwhile hints as to the selection and care of roses are dropped here and there. As a consequence, the book is a hybrid, half practical and half literary. Some amateurs may indeed be attracted by this compound; for our part, we prefer instruction and entertainment in separate volumes or at least separate chapters. It should be added that the book contains a useful fifty-page descriptive list of roses that bloom during most of the summer.

In the autumn of 1909, Clark University celebrated its twentieth anniversary. The exercises held at the time were both interesting and instructive. The University itself is somewhat unusual, in that it has been content to refrain from bidding for a large number of students and has allowed a small band of teachers and pupils to devote themselves to scientific research. In harmony with the aim of the University, students were invited to attend lectures on the most recent developments of science. Four of these lectures, delivered under the auspices of the department of physics, have been published by the University Press. The collection begins with three lectures by Prof. Vito Volterra of the University of Rome. With remarkable lucidity, considering the abstruseness of the subject, he discusses the modern conception of time and space. He attacks the problem by the method of Minkowski, who introduces time as a fourth dimension of space. Since we can form no geometrical idea of space with more than three dimensions, Professor Volterra considers the problem when two directions represent space as a plane, and the third direction, which ordinarily gives volume, is replaced by time. The consequences are then deduced for waves from this postulate. The second and third lectures deal with elasticity. Some remarkable results are illustrated by elastic reactions of gelatine cylinders; and finally the mathematical development of the effect of past distortion on the elastic properties of solids is sketched. This effect of past actions on the present condition of a body, he calls mechanical heredity. Prof. Ernest Rutherford follows with a fascinating account of the history of the alpha rays, which he concludes with a description of his own work to prove that these particles emitted by radioactive bodies are atoms of the gas, helium. The next lecture, by Prof. R. W. Wood, deals with his interesting and illuminating experiments on the spectra of metallic vapors. The volume closes with the results of a systematic study of the properties of steel by Prof. Carl Barus, who spent many years investigating this important subject in all its aspects.

"Engineering as a Vocation" (David Williams Co.), by Ernest McCullough, gives the bright and dark sides of the profession as a livelihood. On the whole, his picture of the life of the engineer is not alluring, but after all a profession is attractive because of the possible rewards it offers rather than the average gain, and the former are great. The author wisely counsels a broad and thorough education. He lays stress on the value of a good English style, but is not himself a very good model. The writer who persists in using "illy," in calling the graduates of engineering schools "alumnæ," in splitting infinitives and in mixing tenses of verbs, strengthens the opinion that the style of engineering students is a bit crude.

The Rede Lecture for 1911 was given by Sir Charles Parsons, who took for his subject "The Steam Turbine." The Cambridge University Press (Putnam) now publishes the lecture in book form. The writer is one of the leaders in this modern adaptation of the old turbine of Hero, and it is interesting to note the sudden evolution of this toy into the driving power of great ships. A pathetic interest is aroused by his illustration of the turbine engines in the ill-fated Titanic.

Wilbur Wright, pioneer airman and inventor of the first practical flying machine, died at his home in Dayton, O., on May 30. The son of a clergyman, who afterwards became a bishop of the United Brethren Church, Wilbur Wright was born near Millville, Ind., in 1867. Neither he nor his brother, Orville, who was so closely associated with him in his experiments, had more than a high-school education, yet they worked out most intricate problems in mechanics. One of the first questions they attacked was that of discovering a means of controlling the balance of an aeroplane. After a brief test of the principles of automatic balancing control, favored up to that time by inventors, they resolved, with their customary boldness, to discard precedent and embark upon a fundamentally different principle—that of mechanical control, with the machine as inert as possible to the effects of change of direction or speed. It was their discoveries along these lines, their invention of fore-and-aft deflecting rudders, and of ailerons or wing-tips that flexed in response to a driver's touch of a lever, which constituted their claim to the monopoly of all airship rights. Their active experiments began in October, 1900, at Kitty Hawk, N. C., but it was not until 1903 that a power machine was made by them to fly, and then less than a minute at a time. In the summer of 1908 the Wrights came into world-wide

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prominence. Wilbur, by his flights at Le Mans, France, astonished Europe, while Orville was flying at Fort Myer, near Washington. The history of their achievements since that time is too well known to need recountal here. Yet any account of Wilbur Wright would be incomplete without mention made of his simple bearing. In the hour of his success, when he was acclaimed and petted by foreigners, he remained unaffectedly himself.

Dr. John Arthur Irwin, who died at his home in New York on Saturday, was born in Roscommon, Ireland, in 1853. Before coming to this country he had taken degrees at Trinity College, Dublin, and at Cambridge University. He was a member of several European and American medical societies, and the author of not a few treatises on his subjects.

Drama

Irish Folk-History Plays. By Lady Gregory. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3 net.

Half a dozen of Lady Gregory's dramatic compositions (three tragedies and three tragic-comedies) are contained in these two volumes. All of them, except the first, "Grania," have been performed in the Abbey Theatre, Dublin, but the Irish players did not try any of them in this country. Perhaps it was prudent not to do so. To tell the truth, they do not exhibit much dramatic instinct or faculty, although they possess positive literary value and have a special interest for students of Irish legend, character, and dialogue. All of them are infinitely better suited to the study than the stage, for, although they are not altogether lacking in effective incident, serious or comic, and occasionally thrill with passionate and eloquent emotion, they are exceedingly loose and feeble in construction and often grossly extravagant in design. They are also weak in characterization, all the personages, whether kings or peasants, being cast in very similar moulds and speaking after very much the same fashion. Whatever the type represented, the personage, in thought and language, is plainly a reflection of Lady Gregory, who, with all her imaginative sentiment and her intimate knowledge of Irish character as a whole, has, apparently, little power of individual creation. Though the talk of her puppets is racy of the Irish soil and atmosphere, and contains vigorous, poetic imagery, sure pathos, and humor, much of its charm would inevitably vanish in the passage across the footlights.

Of the tragedies the hitherto unrepresented "Grania" is undoubtedly the most vital work. Three persons talk together through three acts. Lady Gregory has expanded her legendary material beyond all discretion. But the tale itself is human and tragic, and the wayward passion of the ardent heroine, the fierce jealousy of the elderly King whom she flouted, and the struggle between love and loyalty on the part of Diarmuid—a rough Irish Lancelot—are portrayed in scenes abounding in psychological insight and oratorical vigor. A fine natural robustness animates the narrative, together with some strokes of genuine pathos and a flavor of the antique, if not of the heroic. In the final reconciliation of Grania and Finn, after the death of Diarmuid, there is an inconsistency for which the original fable is probably responsible. "Kincora," which deals with the rivalries of the famous Brian and his associate Kings, Malachi and Maelmora, and the mischief wrought by the ambitious Queen Gormleith, belongs rather to the category of romantic melodrama than tragedy. This piece is livelier in action and more varied in incident, and therefore better adapted to theatrical representation. But the real value of it resides in the characteristic Hibernianism of its moods and dialogue, rather than in its dramatic qualities. There is no real differentiation of personalities, except, perhaps, in the case of Brian, who is marked by a certain intellectual distinction. Kings and servants are equals in political knowledge and sententious utterance. Their discourse makes excellent reading, but is destructive of all dramatic illusion. It is doubtless true that monarchs and serfs in ancient Ireland were pretty nearly on the same intellectual plane, but it was a much lower one than that occupied by Lady Gregory. "Devorgilla" is an episode rather than a play. It is the story of the unhappy Queen who induced her husband, King Diarmuid, to call for the assistance of the English, and thus to bring irremediable ills upon his country, and who tried afterwards to make atonement by good works done in the seclusion of a convent. She is esteemed as a saint until her identity is revealed. The tale is pathetically told, but not in terms of the drama.

The so-called tragic-comedies may be dismissed very briefly. In "The Canavans," placed in the time of Queen Elizabeth, several typical Irish characters are engaged in lively comic incident, but the tale is farcical to the verge of extravaganza. In "The White Cockade," an episode after the Battle of the Boyne, the spirit of the time is fairly well caught, and the Irish dialogue, as usual, is vital, but the piece is very poorly made, and James II is depicted as so contemptible a creature that no interest in his fate is possible. This, of course, is a mistake dramatically. In "The Deliverer," the scene of which is laid in ancient Egypt, with Jews in the place of Israelites, a not very successful attempt is made to establish a parallelism between Moses and Parnell. It is a clever bit of patriotic fantasy which could appeal only to a special Irish audience. All these plays have their particular value in the repertory of an Irish national theatre, but their dramatic possibilities are insignificant compared with their legendary and literary interest.

From the end of July till the beginning of December Laurence Irving and Mabel Hackney will be on tour in the English provinces. They will produce four new plays —the "Typhoon," by the Hungarian dramatist, Lengyel; also Mr. Irving's own versions of Beaumarchais's "The Barber of Seville," "The Marriage of Figaro," and "The Guilty Mother." Their repertory will further include "The Unwritten Law," "The Incubus," and "Hamlet." Soon after Christmas they hope to be seen again in London.

One of the latest ventures in London is that of the Cabaret Theatre Club, which is to be opened very soon. This is to be run on novel lines. From 9 to 11:30 o'clock each evening there will be a dramatic entertainment. Thereafter supper will be served to the accompaniment of a lighter programme, composed of dancing, operettas, sketches, and playlets of every kind and description. The organizers disclaim all attention of following in the track of the Chat Noir in Paris. Among the writers upon whom they will, in the first instance, draw are Villiers de l'Isle Adam, August Strindberg, John Davidson, and Wedekind.

Mrs. Alfred Lyttelton's play, "Peter's Chance," which has just been tried at the London Royalty, opens with some admirably realistic scenes in a London Mission. Peter's story is that of a weakling torn between his religion and the charms of Kitty Roman, the female thief. When Kitty lures him away from the mission, he returns to rob the chapel—at her bidding. At the very door his religion prevents the sacrilege; and he is murdered by Kitty and an accomplice while defending the chapel doors against them. Kitty is said to be played with vivid effect by Florence Lloyd, but the dominant figure of the play is the unsophisticated, large-hearted Father Bentley, said to have been played in masterly fashion by J. D. Beveridge.

There is much smart writing in "The Grey Stocking and Other Plays" (The Riverside Press), but not much of solid dramatic or even theatrical value. The author, Maurice Baring, is a man of wide experience, considerable powers of observation, aided by a happy knack of characterization, but, like many other modern playwrights, his eagerness to shine as a social satirist and to make his personages talk cleverly, renders him careless of the qualities most essential to success in the theatre. His dramatic motives are weak or confused, and action is continually swamped in dialogue, often much more sparkling than appropriate or human. At the root of "The Grey Stocking" there is a valuable theatrical idea. A good girl, full of the joy of life, is fascinated by an intellectual prig, and discovers after marriage that she has nothing in common with her husband—who adores her—or with his friends. So she remains faithful, fond, and miserable. Two young men, with either of whom she might have been happy and to

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both of whom she is affectionately inclined, confess their hopeless passion for her, and then bid farewell, for ever, to her and temptation. Then she learns that her husband has accepted a professorship at Cambridge, and that the remainder of her life must be passed amid surroundings which, of all others, are the least congenial to her. All this might have been the ground-work of a pregnant and poignant life-story, but Mr. Baring has not handled his material skilfully. He has written some clever scenes, but has not succeeded in welding them into vertebrate drama. Nevertheless, this is the best piece of work in the book. "The Green Elephant," a more or less ingenious piece of theatrical mystification, in which everybody is suspected of stealing a jewel which has not been stolen at all, but pawned by the heroine, is as preposterous in detail as it is trivial in theme. "The Double Game," a Russian revolutionary tragedy, might be useful for stage purposes, being swift in action and full of intrigue and incident. The central figure, that of a young noblewoman, who has sacrificed everything in the zeal of her revolt against despotism, and who commits suicide when she discovers that the man she loved and trusted was a traitor, is well and eloquently drawn. The piece is all the more effective, perhaps, because it is written in two acts instead of four.

Music

The star system is nothing new in the musical world. Generations ago the Paris Opéra was famous for its ensembles of stars, three or four of the greatest artists of the time often appearing together in some favorite opera. Such ensembles are rare now. The other evening, however, "Rigoletto" was sung in Paris by the Monte Carlo Company, with a cast including Caruso, Delmas, and Titta Ruffo. In Germany, the newspapers seem to imagine that New York has set the pace in this matter. In Vienna, they talk about their Imperial Opera being "Americanized," because its present manager, Gregor, is doing his utmost to present famous artists, from Caruso down.

Famous artists, unfortunately, are scarcer than ever. A startling illustration of this fact is furnished in a recent number of the Hamburg *Fremdenblatt*. Speaking of a performance of Wagner's "Tristan," with Edyth Walker as Isolde, it refers to this American singer as "the only Isolde to be found to-day on the German operatic stage." Imagine how delighted these Germans would be with our Gadski, or with Fremstad.

The report that Mascagni was to write an opera in collaboration with Gabriele d'Annunzio is confirmed by recent advices from Paris. These two popular men met the other day, and the contract was signed which puts the Italian author under bond to write his first libretto. The publisher Sonzogno, who made a fortune with the prize opera, "Cavalleria Rusticana," has also been in Paris to make arrangements for the production of this projected opera, which is to be called "Parisina." He intends to have it sung first in that city, in Italian, by prominent artists, in a series of performances that are also to include other Mascagni operas.

One of the latest recruits to Oscar Hammerstein's forces in London is Miss Bertha Cæsar. She appeared with signal success in the three characters of Olympia, Giulietta, and Antonia, in "The Tales of Hoffmann." Offenbach, when he wrote this opera, intended that these three rôles should be sung by one and the same person. The feat was accomplished at the original production of the opera by Mlle. Isaac.

The programme book of the London Philharmonic concert on May 23 contained the unusual words, "Analytical Notes by Richard Wagner." The symphony played was Beethoven's ninth, and the notes were those written by Wagner for one of the venerable Society's concerts which he conducted in 1855.

When the London Symphony Orchestra, after travelling 11,000 miles and playing, under Nikisch, in twenty-seven cities and towns in the United States and Canada, returned home, it was taken in hand by Siegfried Wagner, who had not visited England for some seventeen years. He gave a concert the first part of which was devoted to selections from his own operas, while three of his father's works filled the second part, including, appropriately enough, the "Siegfried Idyll," which, as every one knows, Richard Wagner composed at Triebschen, as a surprise for his wife, after the birth of their son. The operas from which extracts were heard were "Herzog Wildfang," produced in 1901; "Der Kobold," (1904), "Bruder Lustig" (1905), "Sternengebot" (1908), "Banadietrich" (1910), and "Schwarz-Schwanenreich" (1911). The soloists were Madame Lilli Hafgren-Waag and Walther Kirchhoff of Bayreuth. Dr. Rottenberg, the Frankfort conductor, who has been directing the "Ring" cycles at Covent Garden, recently expressed the opinion that Siegfried Wagner is "sadly misjudged" in his own country, where, according to his view, he "suffers under the misfortune of being the master's son." He fared no better in England. Although Weingartner, who is much admired in London, has declared that he regards Siegfried Wagner as one of the best living conductors, the concert given by the latter was attended by "a surprisingly small audience." Nor was there much balm in the critical verdicts on his music.

Art

THE VENICE FÊTES.

VENICE, May 10.

This spring is a season of unusual festivity in Venice. In addition to the Art Exhibition which has been held regularly every other year for some twenty years past, we have had the inauguration of the new Campanile. Every one will remember the dismay which the fall of the historic belfry of St. Mark's on July 14, 1902, after a life of a thousand years, caused not only in Venice but throughout Italy, and even in foreign countries.

The work of clearing away the rubbish was started at once, and Giacomo Boni, the well-known Venetian archæologist, living in Rome, was called to prepare the foundations for the new tower. Owing to differences of opinion, he resigned his appointment and was succeeded by Luca Beltrami, the restorer of the Castello Sforzesco in Milan, and he in his turn by a commission of architects under Gaetano Moretti. On St. Mark's Day, April 25, 1903, the foundation-stone was laid by the Count of Turin, representing the King of Italy, and the then Patriarch of Venice, Cardinal Sarto, now Pope Pius X. New piles were driven in around the old ones, which were still in good condition, and new blocks of Istrian stone placed around and above the original platform; the new foundations are thus calculated to support 90,000 tons, whereas the tower weighs only 20,000. The cost of reconstruction amounted to 2,200,000 lire ($550,000), of which 500,000 were provided by the Venice municipality, 100,000 by the King, 1,555,000 by public subscription, raised partly in Venice itself and partly in the rest of Italy, while 55,000 lire were sent from abroad, chiefly by the London Royal Academy. Finally, on April 25 last, the new tower was solemnly inaugurated with a most imposing ceremony, in the presence of an enormous and enthusiastic crowd, by the Duke of Genoa, representing the King, and by the Patriarch, together with all the civil, military, and ecclesiastical authorities of the city.

Now that the Campanile has risen once more, even the most skeptical agree that it was a necessity. The instinct of the Venetians proved right, for the straight, severe tower breaks the series of parallel horizontal lines of the Procuratie, and acts as a support round which the mass of St. Mark and of the other comparatively low buildings of the piazza concentrate; its absence threw the whole architectural scheme out of gear, while the view of Venice from the sea, without the Campanile, was simply unrecognizable. And the result is eminently satisfactory.

The reconstruction of the Campanile is more than a mere architectural achievement. The old tower was the old Venice, the Venice of the Republic with all its pomp and magnificance, its glorious traditions, its conquests in the East. The fall of the Campanile, if it did not coincide with that of the Republic, curiously resembled it, inasmuch as it was a sudden dissolution of an institution which had outlived its time. The year 1902 marked the end of a period of depression through which Italy had been passing, and the rebuilding of the new tower progressed side by side with that wonderful renascence of Italian prosperity and of the Italian spirit which has marked the first years of the twentieth century, and of which Venice itself has had no small share. The Venice

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of to-day, if it is no longer the queen of the Adriatic, is also no longer a city of the dead, a mere haunt of tourists, peopled with hotel-keepers, beggars, and guides, as many foreigners, including some who have pretensions to culture, still seem to think. Although the tourist traffic has grown enormously and the city is also a summer sea-bathing resort for Italians, the port has been expanding steadily, and through it the trade of a large part of Italy, and even of Central Europe, flows on its way eastward once more, as in the days of the *serenissima;* industries are arising, both in the city itself and on the neighboring mainland dependent on it, and every year new enterprises are started, new fields of activity opened up. The people are richer and better dressed, the building trade has taken a new lease of life, new houses are rising and old ones being improved, and there are evidences of increasing wealth on every side. This year, when after a decade of silence the great bells of the Campanile are ringing out the chimes once more, the Italian occupation of Tripoli promises to offer still further means of expansion for Venetian trade with the Levant, and while the festivities for the new monument were held, Italian soldiers were fighting in Lybia and the guns of Italian warships were booming in the Ægean, reviving the enterprises of the Dandolos and the Morosinis. Even if the war with Turkey had done nothing else for the country, it has had the supreme merit of making the Italian people united in fact and in feeling, as well as in the "Statesman's Year-Book" or the "Almanach de Gotha."

If ancient art is well cared for and modern traffic is prospering, modern art has certainly not been neglected. The exhibition of this year, if not better than any of the preceding shows, maintains the usual high level of excellence. The organization, due to the energy and ability of Signor Antonio Fradeletto and of the Mayor of Venice, Count Grimani —the exhibition is a municipal undertaking—is admirable, both from an artistic and a business point of view. Venice has now come to be one of the chief markets in Europe for modern works of art, and its biennial shows are perhaps the most important periodical international exhibitions in the world. Every year some new feature of interest is added, and everything is done to attract fresh talent and new schools of art from every country.

The chief novelties of this year are the Swedish and French pavilions, and the prevalence of "one-man shows." In the central hall of the main building we have the great mural decorations of Pieretto Bianco, The Re-awakening of Venice, representing the restoration of St. Mark's, the rebuilding of the Campanile, the construction of a battleship in the arsenal, and the work of the port; they are an interesting and original composition in which the artist has given proof of considerable power and effective technique, but somewhat monotonous in tone. No less than sixteen artists have their own shows. Cesare Maggi, one of Italy's most talented young artists, certainly is worthy of the honor, and stands very well the ordeal of a room filled with his own paintings; he has evidently been inspired by Segantini, especially in his mountain landscapes, but is no servile imitator. Gaetano Previati is an original artist, also of the so-called "divisionist" school, of which Segantini was one of the founders, with a charming dream-like fantasy and a keen decorative sense. Ettore Tito is undoubtedly the strongest of the Venetian artists of to-day; his great decorative panel, Italy as the Heir and Guardian of the Maritime Glories of Venice, exhibited in the Venetian pavillion in Rome last year, is painted in the grand heroic manner reminiscent of Tiepolo, while his portrait of Princess Borghese is one of the best things in the whole exhibition. Auguste Sezanne has illustrated the splendors of San Marco in a series of delightful paintings, glowing with gold and rich coloring and full of quaint poetical imagination, for he has peopled the great spaces and dim corners of the cathedral with figures of angels, Byzantine princesses, and warriors who seem to have stepped down from the mosaic-covered walls. Canonica, who is perhaps the best living sculptor in Italy, also has a room to himself, and the works he exhibits, especially a child's head and the funeral monument to a little girl, are well worthy of his reputation.

On the other hand, such artists as Ciardi and Bianca, although by no means without talent, are not sufficiently original to deserve one-man shows. Giacomo Grosso is powerful and brilliant in technique, but vulgar and loud—his portrait of the actress Virginia Reiter is a typical example of his work; he belongs to a period of Italian art now happily passing away. There are also some retrospective shows, one of Avondo, the Piedmontese landscape painter, and another of Tranquillo Cremona, one of the early impressionists; they are chiefly interesting from the point of view of art history and development. In the other rooms there are many good things by Fragiacomo, Arturo Noci, Marcini, etc., and also by younger and less well-known men, which show that Italian art is alive and vigorous.

The foreign pavilions are now six in number—the British, the French, the German (this was formerly limited to the Munich "secession"), the Swedish, the Belgian, and the Hungarian. This year the British section is less important than usual; possibly the splendid British show last year in Rome made it difficult to renew the feat after so short an interval. Lambert's strange picture, The Mask, is perhaps the most striking of the collection. The German building contains the work of four highly original artists: Adolf Hengeler, Ludwig Dettmann, Hans von Bartels, and Fritz Erler. The first-named is to my mind the most attractive; his interiors peopled with fascinating children are fresh and full of rare charm, and in some of his other works he shows the best qualities of Stuck, without the latter's occasional lapses into ugliness. Erler's decorative panels are pictorial and painted with a large brush and a sure touch, but they do not seem to mean anything particular, or at least their meaning requires an explanatory programme for the benefit of the initiated.

The French pavilion is also limited to four artists: Lucien Simon, J. E. Blanche, E. R. Ménard, and Gaston La Touche. Simon exhibits some admirable specimens of technique, which explains the hold he has gained over younger men, but he is evidently greater as a teacher and an inspirer of others than as a producer of finished works of art. Blanche has some clever impressions of English pageants, in which the contrast between the gray skies and the solemn, gloomy buildings of London and the brilliant Coronation processions, scarlet and gold uniforms and military splendor are admirably rendered.

In the Swedish pavilion, Anna Boberg's decorative views of Norwegian fjords are attractive, but rather monotonous. Belgium sends many valuable works; perhaps the best are the extremely delicate semitone drawings by Knopff. Hungary is less well represented than in Rome last year or in Venice itself two years ago, but Mannheimer and other artists exhibit some good portraits. An interesting show of works by members of the Wiener Künstler Genossenschaft occupies a room in the main building, and several other works by foreign artists are scattered about the different rooms.

The general arrangements of the Venice exhibition, as usual, deserve warm praise, and offer a striking contrast to the disorganization and discomfort of the Roman shows of last year. Everything runs smoothly; the pavilions are scattered about the charming public gardens, which are easily and quickly reached by the useful penny steamers, and it is often a relief, after toiling away at the startling vagaries of the ultra-violet rays of certain fearfully modern artists, to come upon an open veranda looking out on a peaceful expanse of lagoon.

L. V.

H. C. Levis's "A Descriptive Bibliography of Engravings and Prints," announced by Ellis, includes the most interesting books on the subject in English.

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Finance

THE "MONEY TRUST INQUIRY."

After a somewhat prolonged period of backing and filling by the House Banking and Currency Committee over the so-called "Money Trust inquiry," and after a conflict of opinion between the committee and the banks regarding a series of searching questions, sent out in printed form to all such institutions, it was announced at the beginning of this week that formal taking of testimony would be begun at New York on Thursday. It will apparently begin with the examination of well-known financiers, and will have to do, in general, with the relations of organized wealth to the various financial institutions, individually and as a whole.

The present position of that investigation is unfortunate in several ways. Very many people, even of those who were not averse to a public inquiry on the subject, expressed their belief, at the time the House decided on the investigation, that it ought not to be conducted in the heat and excitement of a Presidential campaign. This opinion was not based primarily on the possibility that the inquiry would be used for campaign purposes and might, therefore, lack the unbiassed and judicial attitude which is preëminently important. That was a serious enough consideration in itself. But it had further to be remembered that inquiries of this nature, once they become identified in the public mind with the political manœuvres of an electoral campaign, are inevitably stamped as mere campaign expedients.

The more such proceedings are made part of the clamor of the hustings, the greater the probability that the general public, in its surfeit and weariness over the whole electoral controversy, when the vote is taken and the campaign ended, will dismiss from its mind the findings of the Banking Committee, along with a multitude of other "campaign issues." Such a result is so plainly foreshadowed by all the experience of previous Presidential campaigns, that some of the warmest and most aggressive advocates of the "Money Trust inquiry" have from the first deprecated active pursuance of the investigation during the political struggle.

It was equally regretted, by the thoughtful part of the community, that a collision of authority should have arisen between the committee and the banks. Technically, the banks which refused to fill out the committee's blank forms of inquiry regarding certain accounts of their individual shareholders, were in the right. The National Bank law does expressly provide that no such institution "shall be subject to any visitorial powers other than such as are authorized by this title" (which refers to the official bank examiners, under the Controller of the Currency) "or are vested in the courts of justice." This provision is all-embracing, and it is difficult to agree with the committee's counsel, Mr. Untermyer, that it is nullified by the voluntary consent of banks in certain cities to allow the Clearing-House Committee to exercise general powers of supervision.

What the foregoing section of the law unquestionably has in mind is the assertion of "visitorial powers" by some other arm of government. It certainly could not apply to the voluntary opening of its books by a bank to a properly constituted organization connected with it in the way of ordinary business. But even so, people who look a little way ahead cannot help thinking the conflict unfortunate—more particularly so, since a joint resolution of both houses of Congress, conferring such authority and signed by the President, would revoke this protective clause. As matters now stand, it may be presumed that, in the absence of such a resolution, the committee's inquiry will be conducted through examination of individuals; which, after all, is the proper scope of such a committee's labors. The fundamental question in this inquiry is whether our credit institutions are or are not being brought under a common control, through which the facilities of the general credit fund are arbitrarily granted or denied. This is the allegation of the projectors of this investigation. It has been made insistently and in the most extravagant terms. If it is true, the fact ought to be established by unimpeachable public evidence. If it is untrue, it cannot be disproved except through public hearings before a committee of inquiry, and the proper purposes of the inquiry may be fulfilled more completely and satisfactorily through an investigation thus conducted.

It is announced that the committee is about to take testimony on the question of the relations of concentrated wealth to the Clearing House and the Stock Exchange. In this the committee will be treading old ground; in particular, the Stock Exchange side of the matter was investigated with the utmost thoroughness by Gov. Hughes's special committee of 1909, who were personally far better qualified to inquire into and pass upon the functions of the Exchange than a Congressional committee could possibly be, and whose report, while eminently judicial, was candid and convincing.

In the matter of the New York Clearing House it is quite safe to predict that the committee's inquiry will clear the air and remove some wholly unwarranted misconceptions from the mind of the outside public. Whatever criticisms may have been levelled by thinking and experienced men against the conduct of individual banks and bankers, at certain junctures in the past, the Clearing House organization and committee have been free from them. The traditions of the institution are of a sort which all New Yorkers conversant with its history regard with pride. It has stood, to the extent of its authority and power, for what have been called old-fashioned banking methods. It has, indeed, occupied for two or three generations the honorable position of guarding primarily the interests of the depositor against unsound and dishonest banking and its consequences. The very powers of supervision over banks in its membership, to which the Pujo committee's counsel has referred, were asserted in response to a spontaneous demand of bank depositors that their interests should be protected by a committee in whose standing and competency the community had confidence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, S. J. The Inverted Torch, and Other Poems. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $1.50 net.
Bazin, René. The Penitent. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.25 net.
Bell, H. T. M., and Woodhead, H. G. W. The China Year Book, 1912 Dutton. $3.50 net.
Bradley, R. M. Children at Play, and Other Sketches. Dutton. $2 net.
Brown, Carleton. Shakespeare and the Horse. (Reprint.) London: Alexander Moring.
Burch, H. R., and Nearing, S. Elements of Economics. Macmillan. $1 net.
Butt, A. W. Both Sides of the Shield. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1 net.
Conservation Law in Relation to Fish and Game. Albany, N. Y., State Department.
Craddock, C. E. The Raid of the Guerilla, and Other Stories. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.25 net.
Davidson, A. F. Victor Hugo, His Life and Work. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $4 net.
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Flint, E. L. King Philip of Primrose Street. Boston: Badger.
Gesell, A. L., and B. C. The Normal Child and Primary Education. Boston: Ginn. $1.25.
Goldring, Douglas. The Permanent Uncle. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Hanna, T. A. T. The Battle of Gettysburg, and Other Poems. Broadway Pub. Co. $1.
Holmes, Thomas. London's Underworld. Dutton. $2.50 net.
Jaekel, Blair. Planning a Trip Abroad. McBride, Nast. 75 cents net.
Kencarden, Stuart. A Mother of Unborn Generations. Broadway Pub. Co. $1.25.
Kingsley, F. M. Wilhelmina Changes Her Mind. Boston: Small, Maynard. $1 net.
Leary, L. G. Andorra, The Hidden Republic. McBride, Nast. $1.50 net.
Leblanc, Maurice. The Frontier. Trans. by A. T. de Mattos. Doran. $1.20 net.
Lockhart, W. P. Lone Star Lyrics. Boston: Badger.
McCabe, Joseph. Goethe, the Man and His Character. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $4 net.
McCabe, Joseph. The Story of Evolution. Boston: Small, Maynard. $3.50 net.
Moffett, Cleveland. The Mysterious Card. Boston: Small, Maynard. 50 cents net.
Montgomery, L. M. Chronicles of Avonlea. Boston: Page & Co. $1.25 net.
Naval History Society Publications. Vol. II, Fanning's Narrative: Memoirs of an American Naval Officer, 1778-1783.
Ollone, H. d'. In Forbidden China. (The d'Ollone Mission, 1906-1909.) Trans. from the second edition by B. Miall. Boston: Small, Maynard. $3.50 net.

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Pratt, W. M. 'Tin Soldiers"; The Organized Militia. Boston: Badger. $1.50 net.
Roe, G. E. Our Judicial Oligarchy. Huebsch. $1 net.
Rose, J. H., and others. Germany in the Nineteenth Century: Five Lectures. Longmans. $1 net.
Spargo, John. Applied Socialism. Huebsch, $1.50 net.
Sulzer's Short Speeches. Compiled by G. W. Blake. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1 net.
Swindle, Lafayette. What the Church Is and What It Should Be. Broadway Pub. Co. $1.50.
Terry, C. S. A Short History of Europe. Dutton. $1.25 net.
Urmy, C. T. A California Troubadour. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $2 net.
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